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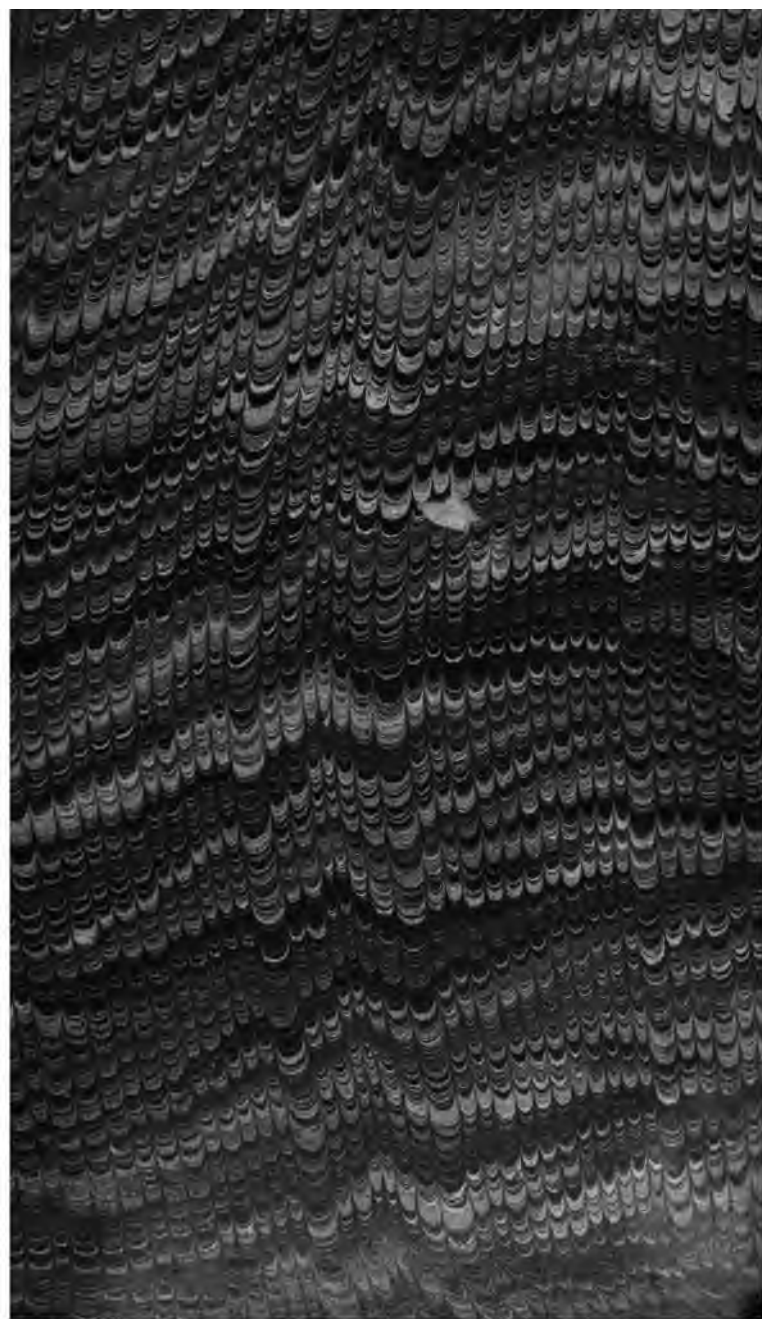
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COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

FOR THE

DEAF AND DUMB:

PART THIRD.

BY

HARVEY PRINDLE PEET, LL.D.

**PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK INSTITUTION FOR THE
INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.**

SECOND EDITION.

NEW YORK:

EGBERT & KING, PRINTERS,

374 PEARL STREET.

1850.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year one thousand eight
hundred and forty-five,
BY HARVEY PRINDLE PEET,
in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the Southern
District of New-York.

PREFACE.

The first edition of this work was published in 1845, as a "Second Part" of the Course of Instruction for the Deaf and Dumb, of which the First (or Elementary) Part, appeared in 1844. In revising the First Part for a second edition, it was found advisable to divide it; and to add to the latter portion many new lessons, which, upon further experience, and more mature reflection, it had been found, could advantageously be introduced between the new First Part and the present Part. Accordingly, in 1849, a new "Second Part" was published, by which the present volume has become the Third Part. By this arrangement it is hoped, an objection will be obviated, which was made by some experienced teachers, when the present volume first appeared as the Second Part, namely: that the transition from the First to the Second Part was too abrupt, and the Lessons in this Part too difficult for pupils who had only gone through the First Part.

To pupils who have passed through the new Second Part, the first half of the present volume will offer very few difficulties of construction, which are not anticipated in the Second Part. And, as that portion of the volume is chiefly composed of reading lessons, it can be gone through more rapidly than would be advisable with lessons designed to introduce, and illustrate new laws of construction. Yet, the pupil's real progress in language, will not be less for the time spent in fixing firmly in the memory, by repetition, words, and forms of construction already learned. One of the advantages which the Author proposed to himself, from compiling a regular series of Text Books, instead of selecting books from among those prepared for children who hear, was that he could thus study to introduce, in interest-

ing connections, those words and phrases already taught, which it is important to impress firmly on the pupil's memory; and at the same time, avoid such words and forms of construction as would, at the actual stage of the course, either be difficult of explanation, or tend to confuse the pupil's ideas respecting the meaning of words, and their mutual dependence in sentences. It is not what the pupil merely commits to memory of an evening, and nearly, or quite forgets before he has practical occasion to use it; but what he well remembers, and can readily recall and apply at his need, that is the true measure of his progress. And if words and phrases already learned can be introduced in new combinations, embodying information of new and piquant interest to the pupil, the advantage will, as every teacher knows, be greater than by merely reviewing old lessons.

Still, even in going through the first three chapters of this volume, the pupil will enlarge his knowledge of language by many new words and phrases. Such words and phrases as are likely to be unknown, or unfamiliar to him, and thus to require more particular explanation from the teacher, are printed in *italics*. It is hardly necessary to observe, that, where examples are given to illustrate any principle of construction, or idiom of speech, the words on which the force of the example depends, are also in *italics*.

The proper use, in books for the deaf and dumb, of *italics*, and of those other marks, too few in number, by which we attempt to give to written or printed words, a small portion of that significancy which, in the living utterance, they derive from the tones of the voice, is a point of much importance. The Author could wish that there were other means of distinguishing words and phrases, marked merely to denote that they require attention and explanation from the teacher, so that the use of *italics* may be re-

served for cases, where they lend force and point to the expression. Perhaps such means may be devised.

The fourth and fifth chapters of this volume, are adapted to the use of pupils of from three to five years standing, for whom they may be advantageously used to form lessons in language and grammar, to be attended to alternately, with lessons in a regular course of arithmetic, and geography or history.

The three parts now published, do not embrace nearly all the idioms and anomalies of our language ; nor perhaps, even a majority of the words in common use. Still, the shortness of the term of instruction, and the pressing necessity of introducing the pupil, not later than about the middle of his term, to books prepared for children who hear, may make it inexpedient to add another part of the Course, merely to teach the words and idioms of our language.— It is, no doubt, highly desirable that all the words and all the modes of speech, which it is expedient to teach during the course of instruction, should be arranged in a regular and philosophical order ; but in practice, the necessity of the case compels us, as soon as the pupil has acquired a fair degree of facility in reading and writing, to introduce other branches of study ; and from that time the words and forms of language are rather explained as they occur, than as we would choose to introduce them. And perhaps this mode, though it would be a serious disadvantage to the pupil in the earlier part of the course, offers no particular disadvantages in the latter part of it.

There still remains one *desideratum* to the course of instruction in language, namely : a methodical vocabulary, in two parts—one part being so arranged, upon an *ideological method*, that the deaf mute, who has forgotten the proper word to express a given idea, may be able to find it again, by knowing its proper place in the vocabulary ; and the other part, in *alphabetical order*, to be specially adapted

to the use of the deaf and dumb, by the simplicity of its definitions and examples, and by the frequent illustration of words by cuts. The labor of preparing such a work, and the expense of printing for so limited a demand, make it somewhat doubtful, whether the Author will be able to realize his plan of preparing a Dictionary of this kind.

The innovations which the Author has found it necessary to make, in the popular terms and definitions of grammar, he is happy to find, have generally been approved by teachers.

As the course of instruction is intended for professed teachers of the deaf and dumb, the Author has never attempted to describe the signs used in explaining words; and, though occasional hints are given in the notes, the mode of explaining, illustrating, and reviewing lessons, has in general, been left to the teacher. The reader, not personally acquainted with the art of deaf-mute instruction, must not, therefore, expect to learn it from this work. The object has been to prepare suitable lessons. The teacher is supposed competent to make good use of them. And it may be added, that the art is far better learned from the living teacher than from books. There was a time indeed, when De L'Epée and Sicard, found it necessary to describe minutely their processes, for the benefit of those who could probably never personally visit a school for the deaf and dumb. But now, schools and teachers are so widely spread, that there need be no difficulty in finding facilities of learning the art from living examples. Still there are many valuable processes in use among teachers, which are not generally known out of the institution where they were devised. To preserve and communicate these for the common benefit, is one of the principal advantages hoped from the proposed Annual Convention of Teachers, and from a periodical devoted to the cause of the deaf and dumb.

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LESSONS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB

PART II.

CHAPTER I.—THE HISTORY OF MAN.

Section 1.—*Infancy.*



The mother has nursed her baby. She has put it in the cradle.
It has gone to sleep. She is rocking it.

Babe—baby—little child—infant—young child.

A *baby* has no teeth. It has not much hair on its head. Its hands and fingers are very small. Its legs are short and weak. It cannot speak, or walk, or chew. It wears a loose frock, and a cap on its head. It sleeps in a cradle. Its *food* is its mother's milk. Its mother *nurses* it; she loves it, and is very *careful* of it. She carries it in her arms when she goes to visit her friends

When the child is hungry, or hurt, or sick, it cries. Its mother hears it and runs to it. She lifts it up, and *rocks* it. She gives it the *breast*, and when it is satisfied, *it goes to sleep* again. Some children have no mothers, or their

mothers are sick and cannot nurse them. They must be *brought up by hand*.

When the child is a few weeks old, it begins to smile and to weep. It will smile when you play with it. It begins to know its own mother. It is afraid of *strangers*.

When the child is a few months old, it *begins* to *cut its teeth*. The teeth grow up from the jaw through the skin of the gums. When the child is *cutting its teeth*, its mouth is sore, it is cross and cries often. It likes to rub its new teeth on something hard. Its mother hangs a piece of silver money round its neck.



A child crawling.



A child learning to walk.

Now the child begins to crawl about the floor on its hands and knees. It plays with a *rattle*. It loves to lift things, to handle them, and to tear them. *Let* it have old newspapers to tear, but *do not* give it books; it will spoil them.

Now it begins to eat soft bread, sweet apples, berries, &c.

When the child is about a year old, its legs *become* strong. It can stand *alone*. Then it learns to walk and run about. It often stumbles or slips, and falls and hurts itself. It cries, and its mother runs and lifts it up, and kisses it. Now it begins to talk. It can say *papa* and *mamma*.

Now the child must be *weaned*. Sometimes it is weaned at one year old; sometimes at a year and a half.

When the child is two or three years old, it can talk

pretty well. It can ask for bread and butter, for cake, for apples, for nuts, for its *playthings*, &c. It knows the names of its parents and friends and *playmates*. It can call the dog and cat. It can tell *who* hurt it. It begins to *think, feel, and reason*. If you give it a small piece of cake, and give its brother a large one, it will think you *unjust*. If you *treat* it *kindly*, it will love you. If you *treat* it *unkindly*, it will dislike you.

Now the child can sit at the table in a little high chair, and hold its little knife, fork and spoon. It can eat bread and butter, bread and milk, rice, pie, &c.

Now its mother often has another little baby. The child *wonders at* its little brother or sister, and loves to kiss it and play with it. Sometimes the child hurts the little baby and the baby cries, and then the mother whips the child *to make it careful*.

Section II.—Childhood.



A boy and a girl looking at their playthings.

Now a little girl often has long hair, but the mother often cuts off the hair of the little boy, and sometimes she cuts off the hair of the little girl. The little girl does not wear a cap, but she has a hat or bonnet when she goes out. The little boy has a hat, or a boy's cap, but he often runs out *bareheaded*, and both boys and girls often go *barefoot* in

summer. Now the little boy *throws aside* his *petticoats*, and wears pantaloons, *jacket*, and apron. The little girl wears a frock, and often she wears *pantalettes*.

When boys and girls are five or six years old, they begin to go to school, and learn to *spell* and to read.

Little boys and girls are very *fond of* play. They will run about, jump and *shout* for a long time. Sometimes their noise is very *troublesome*, and their parents *command* them to be *still*, or *send them out of doors*.

Small children cannot work much; but they can *help* their parents sometimes. They can *fetch* in a little wood for the fire, or pick up *chips*, or feed the chickens, or go a *little way on errands*. They cannot go *far from* home alone, but a woman often sends her little boy or girl half a mile to borrow tea, sugar, candles, or other light things.

When children are six or eight years old, their teeth *become* loose, and fall out, and new teeth grow up.

When boys are ten or twelve years old, they *think themselves* tall, strong and wise. They are often *rude*, *saucy* and *disobedient*. People do not like *such* boys. They must be whipped, to make them *behave* well. Bad boys often *torment* and kill poor little animals, and *tease* and hurt small children. This is both *mean* and *cruel*. Sometimes they *tell lies*, or *swear*, or *steal*. This is very *wicked*. People will hate and *despise* such boys, and God will *punish* them.

Little girls are *also* sometimes careless, rude and saucy. Nobody likes *such* girls. But some boys and girls are *kind* to their brothers, sisters and playmates, *obedient* to their parents and teachers, and *civil* to strangers. Every body likes such boys and girls. Every body *praises* them, and is happy to see them.

Boys and girls love to play. They may play sometimes,

but they must not play always. When they have studied their lesson, and *finished* their work, they may go and play.



Boys playing ball.

The boys play with balls; they shoot with *pop guns*, or with little bows and arrows. They throw stones with *slings*. They draw little sleds and wagons, and *trundle* little wheel-barrows. They whip tops, *roll* hoops, and fly kites.

They slide and skate. They run and *leap* over logs, stones and rails. They climb and swing. They chase each other, and the little boys ride on the backs of the big *ones*. In warm weather they love to wade in a brook, and sometimes they go to a pond or river, and learn to swim; but they must be careful. *If* they go into deep water, they may be *drowned*. Look at that poor boy in the picture. He is in deep water, and he cannot swim.



He holds up his hands and *cries for help*, but the little boy on the shore cannot *reach* him. Soon he will *sink*; the water will *rush* into his mouth and nose, and *choke*

him. Perhaps some man or large boy will come and pull him out of the water before he is dead; but I fear he will be *drowned*. People will come with poles and hooks and ropes. They will *drag*¹ the pond, and pull the *dead body* out of the water, and carry it home. His parents and brothers and sisters will weep. I am sorry for them.

Boys often build *mud-dams*, and little houses and pens of mud, stones or snow. In winter they are very fond of throwing *snow-balls*, and they love to ride down hill on little sleds.

Boys love to ride horses and colts, and sometimes they *get bad falls*.² Sometimes they play soldiers. They have *wooden* guns and *tin* swords, and little drums and trumpets. One of them is *chosen* captain. He *waves* his sword, and *orders* them to *march* this way and that way.³

Girls also have their play things. A very small girl loves to dress and nurse a doll. Sometimes she has a little house for her doll, and a little bed, and a little table, and little tea pots, cups, saucers and spoons. Sometimes she invites, *in jest*, other little girls to bring their dolls, and take tea with her.

Large girls do not dress dolls, but they love to swing, and jump the rope. They can dance, and play *various games*. They often play in their room, but when the *weather* is *pleasant*, they go out and play on the grass. They do not skate or swim, but in winter they love to slide on the smooth ice. Sometimes the boys draw them on their little sleds, or in their little wagons.

1 "To drag a pond or river," is to *drag* a hook or *grapnel* all over the bottom of the water. The teacher will explain the words *pull*, *jerk*, *drag*, *draw*.

2 Get a fall; hurt by a fall; give a fall; &c.

3 Go the right way; wrong way; lost his way; &c.



A little boy drawing a little girl in a little wagon.



A boy swinging a girl.

That little girl in the picture has a whip in her hand, and *makes believe* she is driving a horse. The little boy is going on *all fours* like a horse. Children think this fine *fun*.

When you play, you must be careful not to hurt yourselves, or your playmates. You must not be cross or angry, if you are *beaten*, or when you are hurt by *accident*. You must not be *envious*, if you see other children have pretty playthings. You must not be *selfish*, and want to eat all the fruit or *keep everything to yourself*. You must not be *proud* of your fine clothes, or nice playthings, and *despise* poor children.

Girls must not climb trees, or wade in deep water, or roll on the ground. People will laugh at them and despise them.

Boys sometimes climb trees and steal birds' nests. They are very cruel. The poor birds fly round, and cry for their young ones. Sometimes these bad boys fall from the trees and break their bones. Often they tear their clothes, and when they return home, their parents *chastise* them. The *rod* makes their legs *smart*.

Good boys help their father. When he ploughs, they *drive* the oxen. They can help *spread* and rake hay. They fetch the cows home at night. They can drop

corn; pull up weeds; dig potatoes; pick apples; and do many other things.

Good girls also help their mother. They can wash dishes; take care of the baby; feed chickens; and pick *greens* and beans for dinner. They learn to sew and to knit.

When deaf and dumb boys and girls are twelve years old, they are sent to the Institution to be taught.

Section III.—Youth.



Young people going on a *party of pleasure*.

When boys and girls are about fourteen or fifteen years old, they begin to grow tall. Now they are called *young people* or *youths*.

When they can read, write and *cipher* well, their parents take them from school. They must now learn to work, and must *earn their own living*.

Some boys go to *college*, and study very hard for several years. They wish to become *ministers*, or *teachers*, or *doctors*, or *lawyers*.

Many boys become *apprentices*, and learn *trades*. They become *shoemakers*, or *tailors*, or *carpenters*, or *cabinet-makers*, or *book-binders*, or *blacksmiths*, or *masons*, or *coopers*, or *hatters*, or *printers*, or *painters*, or *wagon-makers*, or *chair-makers*, or *watch-makers*, or *weavers*, or *butchers*, &c.

Some boys go to sea, and become *sailors*, or fishermen. Have you ever seen a large ship? Have you ever been on board one? Would you like to be a sailor? a *fisherman*?¹

Many boys stay at home and help their fathers, or grandfathers, or uncles, on the farm, or in the garden. They learn to chop wood, dig the garden, plough, sow and harrow, *cradle* wheat, rye, or oats, mow and rake, *thresh* and *clean* grain, and carry it to mill, *butcher* hogs and cattle, &c.

Large boys like to go into the woods with their guns and dogs. They shoot birds, squirrels, quails, rabbits, &c. Sometimes they find a bear on a tree, and kill it, and then they *feel* very proud.

When boys become tall and strong, and can work well, they often *earn* money, and buy nice clothes, and invite young ladies to ride out with them on a *party of pleasure*.

Look at the picture. There are eight young people in the *party*,—four young ladies, and four young men. The two drivers do not *belong* to the party. They have two carriages. In one carriage we see a young lady on the back seat, her *partner*, (or *beau*) is not *in sight*.² I think he will soon come. They are waiting for him. On the front seat we see another young lady and a young man.

¹ The teacher will explain, that *would like*, refers to a mere supposition, *will* or *shall like*, to something expected.

² In sight; out of sight.

They sit with their backs to the horses. The driver is on the *box*, with his whip in his hand. We cannot see the horses, because the other carriage is *in the way*.¹ In the other carriage we see one young lady. The other young lady is just stepping in. Her beau *offers* his arm to *assist* her. The other young man stands behind him. Soon they will all get in, and then the drivers will *crack* their whips and the horses will *start* on a trot. It is pleasant to sit in a *spring*-carriage, and ride fast, and see the thick woods, green meadows, cornfields, orchards and houses fly *past* you. Sometimes you drive over a bridge, and *shudder* to see the deep bright water beneath you. These young people will ride a few miles to visit their friends, and in the evening they will return home. I hope they will return *safe*.

Some girls learn a trade. They become *tailoresses*, or *book-folders*, or *dress-makers*, or *milliners*. Some cover umbrellas; some sew gloves; some bind shoes; some trim hats; some work in woolen or cotton *factories*.

Many girls stay at home, and help their mothers, or grandmothers, or aunts, or sisters. They learn to wash and iron; to *card* and *spin* wool, flax and tow; to milk, to *skim* the milk, and to churn; to make cheese; to knead bread, and make pie and cake, and to mix custard and pudding and to bake them; to cook the dinner; to *set* the table, and *clear* it *off*; to make sweetmeats and pickles; to *stuff* and *roast* a turkey, or a pig; to make soap; to make and mend their own clothes, and the clothes of their fathers and brothers; to keep the house clean, the beds neat, and the furniture *in order*; to take care of children and sick people.² When a girl can do *all this*, she is

1 In the way; out of the way; get out of my way; &c.

2 Teach the pupil that the verb *learns*, expressed before the first infinitive, is understood before all the rest.

called a *smart* young woman, and thinks she can *keep house for herself*.

When young men are eighteen or twenty, their beards begin to grow, and they must *shave* once or twice a week.

At eighteen or twenty young people are nearly *full grown*.

When a young man is twenty-one years old, he is of *full age*. At that *age* apprentices are always *free*. Young men of *full age* can go where they please, and work for themselves. They can *vote at elections*. They must pay a *tax*. Now they keep all the money they earn; but they must buy their own clothes, and pay their *board*. Sometimes they are masters of their own shops; sometimes they work for other men in a shop or on a farm; sometimes they stay and help their fathers. They often work hard and earn much money. Some are foolish, and spend all their money for watches and fine clothes, or in riding about. Some go to taverns and spend their time in drinking, smoking, talking *nonsense*, or fighting; and spend their money for rum and tobacco. These foolish young men will always be poor, and perhaps will become *drunkards*.

Other young men are *wise* and *prudent*, and save part of their money. They put it in the *Savings-bank*; or buy *land*, or *cattle*.

Young women are free when they are eighteen. Some go to a town or city to work and earn money. They often spend their money for fine clothes, and love to go to meeting, or to *parties*, and *show* their new clothes. This is vain and foolish.

Some young women help their aged mothers. They *provide* food and clothes for them, and nurse them when they are sick.

Many young women stay at home. If their parents are

very rich, they do not work much, but sew, read, and visit each other. But many young women work hard, and it makes them strong and *healthy*. When they are tired, it is pleasant to rest. If you never work, you cannot rest.

Young men and young women do not often go to school; but they often study at home. They go to church, and to a Bible-class. Sometimes they become Sunday School teachers.

Section IV.—Manhood.



A Wedding.

When a young man has saved money enough, he wishes to have a home of his own. He looks round for a good wife. When he has found a young woman *to please him*, he *courts* her a few months, and asks her to marry him. If she likes him, and is *willing* to marry him, she asks her parents' *consent*. If he is *sober*, *good-tempered*, and *industrious*, her parents give their *consent*.

They *invite* their relations and friends *on both sides*, to the *wedding*. The *bride* and *bridegroom* stand up before

the *company*; they join their hands, and *promise* to be *faithful* and kind to each other; the minister prays to God for his *blessing*, and they become *husband* and *wife*. Then the company kiss the bride, and *shake hands* with the bridegroom, and wish them *joy* and *happiness*. Often they have a wedding *feast*. They eat cake, and drink wine or *cordials*, and then *wish* the young couple *good night* and *take leave*. Sometimes the *young couple* travel together for a few days.

When young people are married, they buy or *hire* a house, or sometimes they build one. The parents of the bride make her a present of furniture. Sometimes the father of the bridegroom gives him a small farm.

Sometimes the *young couple* are very poor. They have but one bed, and one little table; a few old chairs, and some cheap dishes. But if they are industrious and prudent, they can buy good furniture in a few years.

They feel *contented* and happy to live in their own house. The wife loves to keep her rooms nice. She *quilts covers* for her beds, and makes *curtains* for her windows. She hangs a *veil* over her looking-glass to keep off the flies.

She cooks a good breakfast for her husband in the morning; she cooks a good dinner for him at noon, and blows the horn to call him from the field; and when he comes back at night tired and hungry, she has a good supper ready for him. She makes and mends his clothes, and washes and irons his shirts.

If the husband is a *mechanic*, or *lawyer*, or *merchant*, or *teacher*, he earns money, and brings it to his wife; she goes to the store or the market, and buys flour, butter, cheese, sugar, meat, fish, &c. She also buys cloth, calico, silk, thread, &c.

If the husband is a farmer, he does not often give money to his wife. He has pork and beef and wheat and corn and potatoes enough *of his own*. The wife sells butter and cheese, and eggs and chickens and turkeys, and she has money enough to buy her clothes, dishes and furniture. She spins her own wool, and knits stockings. She sends part of the yarn to the *weaver*, to make cloth and blankets for winter. Her husband *raises* flax, and *dresses* it in winter. She spins it, and sends it to the weaver to make thin cloth for summer.

Sometimes their friends come to see them, and sometimes they visit their friends. They do not stay *from home* long. They like to be at home, and think it a pleasant and happy place. But often the wife goes to visit her old parents, and is happy to stay some days with her mother and sisters. When her friends come to visit her, she invites them into the parlor, and *treats* them *with* tea, cake and sweetmeats.

In a few years there are little children in the house. Now the young man is a father, and the young woman a mother. Now the wife cannot do all the work. Sometimes one of her sisters comes to live with her and help her. Sometimes she *hires* a strong careful girl to help her.

The little children climb up on their knees, and call them *papa* and *mamma*. When they go to see their old fathers and mothers, the children call them *grandpapa* and *grandmamma*. Those two little girls have come to visit their *grandpapa*. I do not know whether it is their *father's father*, or their *mother's father*.





The little girl is sitting in her *papa's* lap, and her brother stands by his knee. He is telling them a pretty *story*.

You see the fire burns, *for* it is cold *weather*. There are some books on the mantle shelf, *for* the father and mother love to read good books, and will teach their children to read them.

Some of their brothers and sisters have children. These children are their nieces and nephews. Sometimes their nieces and nephews come to visit them, and play with their little cousins.

Sometimes the man and his wife have a large family, and their children are often very *troublesome*. Sometimes the children break the windows, or dishes, or looking-glass. Sometimes they tear their clothes, and the mother must mend them again and again, till they are worn out. Sometimes they burn or *scald* themselves, or fall and hurt themselves, and then they must be nursed and *put to bed*.



That ignorant and careless child has overturned the teapot, and the hot water is flying¹ over its face and neck. It will be *dreadfully* scalded.

Sometimes the children become very sick, and the father must ride for the doctor. Sometimes they die, and their parents weep over them. The dead child is put into a little coffin. The friends and neighbors come to the funeral. The minister preaches a funeral sermon. Then the coffin is carried to the grave-yard, and put into a little grave. The earth is thrown over the coffin, and the parents never again see their *dear* little child on earth, but they hope to see it again in heaven.

Though some children become sick and die, many others are healthy, and grow fast. If their parents are foolish, and indulge them, they often become *saucy, rude, selfish, mischievous* and *disobedient*, and make their parents very unhappy. But when their parents are wise, and *counsel* and *correct* them, they become *well-behaved, careful, affectionate* and *generous*, and make their parents happy. They are willing to help their parents in light work.

¹ When the wind blows hard in summer, the dust and dry leaves *fly about*; and in winter the snow *flies in* our faces. If you throw a stone into a pond, the water *will fly up*. A man was cutting down a tree, a chip *flew* in his eye, and gave him much pain.

They go to school and improve fast, and their parents *feel* proud of them.

The man and woman are now *middle-aged* people. They stay much at home. If they are industrious and prudent, they grow rich. They are *grave, careful, and thoughtful*. Now their hair begins to turn gray. They do not like to walk fast, but they are still strong.

Sometimes the husband or the wife dies. When the husband dies, his wife is called a *widow*. She has one third of his *property*, and the other two thirds are *divided* among his children. If he has no children, it is given to his brothers and sisters.

A widow wears a black *mourning* dress for some months. She is often very unhappy and lonesome. But she takes care of her children; she *gives* them good *advice*, and tells them to fear and obey God, and to be honest and industrious, and then they will be comfortable and happy.

When the wife dies, her husband is called a *widower*. Sometimes a widow or a widower marries again. This is called a *second marriage*.

Section V.—Old Age.



Now the man and woman are getting old. Their children are *grown up*. Many of them are married and have families of their own. Sometimes they live far from their parents.

The old people have grand children, and sometimes *great-grand children*. Often they take some of their grand children to live with them.

Now the old people cannot work hard. They love to sit by the fire. The old man smokes his pipe, and reads, or *tells stories* to his grand children.

Now the old people *stoop* and *totter*. Their hair becomes gray, and at last *quite white*. Often it falls off, and they become *bald*. Their faces are *wrinkled*. Their *joints* are *stiff*. They *cough* often. Their eyes are *dim*. They are *hard of hearing*. Often they become *peevish* and *selfish* and *forgetful*. Very old people are often *childish*.

We must *respect* old people. If they are sometimes forgetful and foolish, we must not laugh at them. If we *mock* them, God will be very angry.

Some men and women live long. *A very few* have lived one hundred, and *even* one hundred and fifty years. But *in general* old people die between seventy and eighty.

Their bodies are wrapped in a *shroud*, put in a *coffin*, and carried in a *hearse* or on a *bier* to the *grave*. Their children, *relatives* and friends follow the coffin. They stand round the grave and the coffin is opened to give them a *last look*. They look *for the last time* on the face of their aged parent, and weep, and *take farewell*. Then the coffin is put into the grave; some straw is put on it, and the earth and stones are thrown in. The grave is *filled up*, and the earth makes a heap over it. Some men have cut the name of the *deceased* on a flat stone. It is put at the head of the grave. The minister lifts his hat; and all the men uncover their heads while the minister makes a short *prayer*. Then they *disperse*, and return to their homes.



The Burial.

Have you seen in the grave-yard the graves of your grand-father, or grand-mother, or father or mother, or of a little brother or sister, or cousin or other *near relative*, or

of one of your dear friends and playmates? Their bones are in the grave. Worms have eaten their flesh. Their souls have gone to God *to be judged*. If they have been good and pious, they are now happy in heaven.

Some of them were old when they died, some were middle aged, and left little children crying for their parents. Some were young and thoughtless. Some were little children. Go into the grave-yard, and you will see many little graves.

Some were sick a long time before they died. They *suffered* much *pain*. Some were sick only a day or two. Some died *suddenly*. Some were killed by *accident*, and some by other men, or by *wild beasts*.

We must all die. Perhaps we may die this day. Perhaps we may live to be old. God only knows. Fear and obey Him, and then, *whether* you die, or *whether* you live, you will be happy.

QUESTIONS ON THE PRECEDING LESSONS.

The teacher will form questions on each lesson, varying them so as to prove whether the pupils understand the whole sentence, and explaining the change that would be made by the addition or subtraction of a word. They should be made familiar with the most common phraseology of answers, *first* written at length, and *then* abbreviated, as in the following examples:

Has a baby any teeth?

No sir:—A baby has no teeth.

It has no teeth.

It has none.

Has it any hair on its head?

Yes sir:—It has some hair on its head.

It has some.

It has a little.

What does it do when it is hungry ?

When it is hungry it cries.

It cries.

What may a child have to play with ?

Old newspapers, &c.

After going over the lessons once by direct questions, the answers to which may be taken from the text, it will be advantageous to go over them again, asking questions, the answers to which must be drawn from the pupil's own experience or reflections, as for example:—

Does a baby *always* sleep in a cradle ?

No sir:—It sleeps in a bed sometimes.

Does the mother always carry it in her arms, when she goes to visit her friends ?

No sir:—Sometimes she leaves it at home with a nurse.

Do all children begin to walk at a year old ?

No sir:—Some begin to walk before they are a year old. Some are sickly, and do not begin to walk till they are two or three years old. *A few* are born lame, and never walk.

Do all boys and girls go to school at five or six years old ?

No sir:—Some are ten or twelve years old before they go to school. Some never go to school. They never learn to read and write. I pity them.

Do all young men and young women *get married* ?

No sir:—Some become *old bachelors*, and *old maids*.

Do all people live to be old ?

No sir:—Very many die in *infancy*, in *childhood*, in *youth*, and in *mankhood*.

Do all married people have children ?

How many fathers have you ? Only one.

How many grandfathers have you ?

I have two grandfathers. One is my father's father, and the other is my mother's father.

The above will suffice as hints to the experienced teacher, both for the preceding lessons, and those in following chapters.

It will be advantageous also, to practice the pupils in forming narratives, by changing the general form of the text to the narrative form, and in writing in full those passages in which an ellipsis occurs.

Section VI.

Inflections of Verbs introduced in the preceding Lessons.

I.—REGULAR VERBS.

1. The following have the tenses formed on the participle in *ing*.

Transitive—nurse, suckle, rock, wean, help, fetch, torment, tease, punish, praise, finish, roll, drown, choke, drag, wave, order, chastise, cradle, butcher, trim, assist, crack, cover, fold, card, clear off, stuff, roast, quilt, shave, court, counsel, correct, wrinkle up, fill, thresh, clean, scald, search. Those in italics are sometimes intransitive.

Intransitive—shout, leap, rush, march, assemble, disperse, start, shudder, stoop, totter, slip, smart, vote, cipher, spell. Those in italics are sometimes transitive. The last three do not change their meaning in becoming transitive ; but all the other verbs above which are both transitive and intransitive, contain in their transitive meaning the sense of to cause or make, as observed in the First Part.

Lie, to tell lies, is regular. He lied, he has lied ; participle lying. But it is more common, in familiar discourse to say, he tells lies,—is telling lies,—told a lie, &c.

2. The following do not in *general* admit the tenses in *ing*.

Transitive.—Command, invite, order, *promise*, despise, treat, cure, respect, judge, suffer, wonder at, belong to, offer, hire, mock, earn.

Intransitive.—Behave, wonder, reach, smart.

Reach, is used transitively by omitting the preposition *to*. "The rope does not reach the bottom," or *to* the bottom. Several other of the verbs in the foregoing list are used in the present tense instead of the present imperfect, in cases for which it would be difficult to give rules, but which the teacher may illustrate by examples, as: "That old man stoops and totters: his hand shakes, his beard waves in the wind." "A boy was stooping to look into a well, he slipped, and was tottering, when his brother seized him, and pulled him back." This point will be further illustrated in speaking of the tenses of verbs.

It is to be remarked that the signification of the words *treat*, and *behave*, can hardly be explained apart from the adverbs which are usually joined to them. The pupil should therefore be taught to regard the verb and adverb as forming a compound word. Treat well, treat ill; treat kindly, treat unkindly; treat rudely, treat civilly; treat politely, treat impolitely, &c. So behave well, behave ill; behave rudely, behave politely, &c. "That man treats his wife very ill." "That boy behaves ill to his mother."

II.—IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. *Intransitive*.

| | | | |
|--------|--------|------------|-------------------------|
| become | became | has become | is becoming |
| begin | began | has begun | is beginning |
| burst | burst | has burst | is bursting |
| sink | sank | has sunk | is sinking |
| upset | upset | has upset | is upsetting |
| swear | swore | has sworn | is swearing |
| set | set | has set | is setting ¹ |

¹ The sun *is setting*. There *is* a goose *setting* in that pen. But, set a table. Set a dog on a cow, &c.

2. *Transitive.*

| | | | |
|--------|--------|------------|--------------|
| send | sent | has sent | |
| choose | chose | has chosen | |
| leave | left | has left | is leaving |
| meet | met | has met | |
| beat | beat | has beat | is beating |
| drive | drove | has driven | is driving |
| spread | spread | has spread | is spreading |
| show | showed | has shown | is showing |
| grow | grew | has grown | is growing |
| set | set | has set | is setting |
| let | let | has let | is letting |
| get | got | has got | is getting |

The words *get*, *let*, *set* and *put*, are chiefly used in compounds in which the second part of the compound has often more influence on the meaning of the phrase than the first. The teacher may explain a few of these, (reserving the more idiomatic to a future lesson).

Get. 1. Get money, get a book, &c.

2. Get in, get out, get on, get off, get over, get up, get down, get back, get there, get to, get away, &c.

3. Get it in, get it out, get him off, get your money back, &c.

4. Get drunk, get sober, get sick, get well, get rich.

5. Get hurt, get married, get your neck broken, get a bad fall, &c.

Let. 1. With a verb, as, he would not let me go. Let him go, let the bird fly, I told the boy to let the bird fly, let me have a book, &c. (Here *let* is in the imperative, and is followed by an objective.) *Let* in this connection is not used in the passive.

2. Let in, let out. "The dog was *let loose* and flew at the bull;" "a bucket is *let down* into a well by a pole or a rope." "Let him alone." "He *let go* the rope," &c.

Section VII—Words and Phrases Illustrated.

Rich ladies often send away their children *to be nursed*.
A woman found one of her goslings almost dead. She

took it into the house and *nursed* it. In two or three days it *got well*, and ran after its mother again.

A ewe *suckles* her lamb a few months, and then drives it away to *take care of itself*.

A boy worked two days in a gentleman's garden. The gentleman paid him four shillings. The boy was not *satisfied*, and said he *ought* to have five shillings.

A hog crept through an old fence into a corn-field. He ate the corn till he was *satisfied*, and then lay down to sleep. The farmer found him, and *set* his dog *on* him. The dog seized the poor hog by the ear, and tore it *dreadfully*.

A child was *rocking itself* in a chair, and *overturned* the chair, and fell upon a stool. Its head was badly hurt. It screamed loudly.

Little boys must not *handle* loaded guns; they may shoot themselves or other people.

Boys love to *handle* tools, and often spoil them.

Some boys were swimming in a river. One of them dived down from a high bank into the water. He did not come up again. The other boys *wondered* why he staid so long.¹ After a few minutes, they feared that he was dead. They waded into the water, and found him with his head *fast* in the mud at the bottom of the river. He was dead before they could pull him out.

At what time does school *begin*? At what time does it *end*?

It *began* to rain in the morning and rained hard all day. The river *rose* very high, and *swept* away the old bridge.

A young lady *began* to read a new book at seven o'clock, P. M., and *finished* it before eleven o'clock. It was a very *interesting* book.

¹ Or, they wondered at his *staying* so long.

One winter morning, the *door steps* were covered with ice. A girl going out to get water, *slipped*, and fell down the steps. She was much hurt, and could *hardly* walk for some days.

A girl is *afraid of* snakes. A hen is *fond of* scratching for worms. A woman is *careful of* a new looking-glass.

We feed a pig *to make* him fat. We wash our hands *to make* them clean. We whip a horse *to make* him go fast.

Let a little boy have a dull knife, but *do not* give him a sharp knife; he will cut his fingers.

God *commands* us to *obey* our parents and teachers.

When you are in the chapel, you must sit *still* and make no noise.

Thieves, liars, cheats, drunkards and *swearers* are very bad men.

A woman *sent* her little boy to a *neighbor's* on an *errand*; I do not know what *errand*,—perhaps to borrow a *little* tea. She told him he must not wade in the brook, but the boy *disobeyed* her. He waded in the brook, and stumbled, and fell in the water. When he returned home, he told his mother that another boy pushed him into the water. This boy *told a lie*. He was very wicked.

A crazy woman *thought herself* a cat, and scratched her husband's face.

Good boys are *praised, because* they *behave well*.

Big fishes eat little *ones*. Strong cows hook weak *ones*. I like sweet apples, I do not like sour *ones*.

Large birds lay large eggs, little *ones* lay small eggs. Birds feed *their little ones*, and *brood* them to keep them warm.

Carry this stool from *one* side of the room to the *other*.

Ladies kiss *each other* when they meet. Dogs bite *each other* when they are angry. Good neighbors help *each other*.

Why must not you throw stones against a house? *Because* you may break the windows.

Why must not girls climb trees, or roll on the ground? *Because* people will laugh at them, and despise them.

If you steal and tell lies, people will despise you.¹

If you are *honest* and *speak the truth*, people will *respect* you.

If you put your finger in the fire, it will *smart*.

A horse will kick you, *if* you pull his tail. A cat will scratch you, *if* you tread on her foot.

When the grass is mowed, it must be *spread* in the sun *to dry*.

A boy climbed up an apple tree and threw apples down to his sister. She *spread* out her apron to catch them.

A farmer *spreads* flax on the grass. A girl sometimes *spreads* clothes on the grass *after* she has washed them.

Pigs *grow* fat. Old horses *grow* poor. These boys *are growing* tall. Some men *let* their beards *grow* long.

A colt *grows* fast. A child *grows* slowly.

B—*has done growing*. He is *full grown*.

A colt *becomes* a horse. Grass *becomes* hay. Cider *becomes* vinegar. Mr. —'s hair *has become* gray.

The *minister* preaches and prays. The *teacher* teaches children to read and write. The *doctor* gives medicine to the sick. The *lawyer* *pleads*, and explains the law.

The *shoemaker* makes boots, shoes and slippers. The *carpenter* builds houses of wood. The *mason* builds houses of stone or brick. The *black-smith* *shoes* horses, mends broken wheels, chains, &c. The *cooper* makes

¹ The teacher will explain that the expressions; He lies, He is a liar, It is a lie, He tells a lie, &c., are to be used only in aggravated cases.

tubs, barrels and *casks*. The *printer* prints books and newspapers. The *wagon-maker* makes wagons, carts and wheel-barrows. The *gun-smith* makes and mends *guns*, *pistols* and *rifles*. The *butcher* kills sheep, cattle and hogs, and sells their *flesh* in the *market*.

The *farmer* raises corn, wheat, rye, potatoes, oats, hay, apples, &c. He sells horses, sheep, fat cattle, calves, hogs, butter, cheese, eggs, *poultry*, &c.

The *gardener* *cultivates* a garden, and sells strawberries, melons, radishes, pease, beans, onions, cabbages, cucumbers, beets, carrots, turnips, &c.

The *tailoress* sews for the tailor. The *book-folder* folds books for the book-binder. The *milliner* makes ladies' hats, caps and bonnets.

All these are *trades*, and there are likewise many other trades.

QUESTIONS ON TRADES, &c.

What is your trade? What is your father's trade? &c.
Do you like the tailor's trade?—Shoemaker's?—? &c.
Do you wish to be a farmer?—gun-smith?—watch-maker?—sailor? &c.

*Would*¹ you like to work in a factory? *Would* you like to be a teacher?

Are you now learning a trade?

What trade do you wish to learn?

Did you ever see a woolen factory?—a cotton factory?

Can you cook?—churn?—bake? &c.

Can you make your own clothes?

Do you think you can keep house for yourself?

¹ "Would you like?" implies, "If you were—would you like it?"
See Chapter IV, Section XI.

When you are of full age, will you spend all your money, or *save* part of it?

If you had much money what would you buy?

How much money can an industrious man earn in a day? — month? year? (From half a dollar to two dollars a day; from one hundred to three hundred dollars a year, &c.)

Some women work for one shilling a day and *board*.

When we *meet* our friends, we *wish* them *good morning*, or *good evening*.

When we *take leave of* our friends, we *wish* them *happiness* and *health*.

Mr. C — has a home of *his own*.

Mr. — has not a home of *his own*. He *boards* with —.

A woman went into a store and looked for a pretty piece of calico. She could not find one *to please her*, and went to another store.

A young man courted a young lady. She was willing to marry him, and *asked* her parents' *consent*. Her parents refused their *consent*, because he was poor, and had no good *trade*. They ran away and were married *privately*. This was foolish. They were very poor, and their children were very troublesome. They were *uncomfortable* and *unhappy*, and *felt* sorry that they *ever* got married.

I will tell you a story about a dog.

A little child went *too far* from home *alone*. It *got lost*. Its mother ran round to look for it. She called it, and shouted loudly. She listened, but could not hear the child. She was much *frightened*. She said "I fear that a bear or wolf has carried my child away." She *blew the horn* to call her husband and his *hired men* from the field,

They came and *searched* in the woods for a long time, but could not find the child. They called their neighbors to help them, and *searched* the woods all day. They got a *grapnel* and *dragged* the well and the mill-pond, but all in *vain*.

At last an old Indian came with his dog. He told them to give him the child's stockings. He made the dog smell the stockings, and began to lead him in a *circle* round the house into the woods. The dog smelled the *track* of the child, and began to bark. He followed the *scent*, and found the child in the woods among some thick bushes. The Indian took up the child, and carried it to its mother. She was almost crazy *with joy*. They thanked the good Indian. They gave him a good supper and a good bed. They gave the dog a very good supper. They were all happy.

Every vacation the pupils *disperse* to visit their friends, and in September they *assemble* again.

When we have the *tooth-ache* we *suffer* much *pain*.

Many people like to *give pain* to others, but no one likes to *suffer pain*.

A man had a *severe pain* in his foot. He *suffered* dreadfully. He could not sleep. The doctors could not *cure* the pain. *At last* they cut off his foot.

People are often killed by *accident*. A man was killed by the *bursting* of his gun. A boy was killed by *falling* from a ladder. A lady was killed by *being thrown* from a carriage. A man was killed by *being run over* by a locomotive. Two girls were drowned by the *upsetting* of a small boat. A child was *crushed to death* under the wheel of a cart. A man was killed by *an old tree falling* on his head. A girl was burnt to death by *her clothes catching* fire. A boy was killed by *being thrown* from a horse. &c

Let the pupils change the above instances to the narrative form, as: A man was shooting birds. His gun *burst* and killed him. A careless boy climbed a ladder, and fell from it on a heap of stones. Some people came to help him, but he was dead.

NOTE.—The differences in construction in the above phrases expressing the cause or manner of death may be thus explained. If the person *does* something and is killed, write, "He was killed *by falling* &c., *by running* against, &c." If he *suffers* something, write, "He was killed *by being thrown*, &c., *by being run over*, &c." If something else does something, the form is, "He was killed *by the bursting of* &c., "by *the upsetting of* &c." or, "by an old tree *falling*, &c." This can be made clearer by reference to the simple narrative form. "He *fell*—and was killed." "He was killed *by falling*." "He *was run over* and killed." "He was killed *by being run over*." "His gun *burst* and killed him." "He was killed *by the bursting of his gun*," or "by his gun *bursting*," but this last form is not much to be recommended.

A boy fell from a horse; his foot caught fast in the *stirrup*. The horse was frightened. He *started on a run*, and *dragged* the boy along the ground for a quarter of a mile till the stirrup broke. The boy's head and arms were dreadfully *mangled*. He died in a few minutes.

Many people have been killed by *wild beasts*. Lions and tigers sometimes seize men, carry them into the woods, tear them *to pieces*, and *devour* them. Wolves sometimes seize and carry off children.

Old people like to *have* their sons and daughters with their wives, husbands and children *come* to visit them. Their sons' wives are their *daughters in law*, and their daughters' husbands are their *sons in law*.

CHAPTER II.—COMPARISON. (See note 3.)

Section I.—Comparison of equality. *as—as*.

Lesson 1.

John is as $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{tall} \\ \text{strong} \\ \text{old \&c.} \end{array} \right\}$ as James. James is as $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{tall} \\ \text{strong} \\ \text{old \&c.} \end{array} \right\}$ as John.

That tree is as high as that house.

The tiger is *almost* as strong as the lion.

That picture is as pretty as this.

That book is as heavy as that slate.

This cane is as long as the table.

Lesson 2.

This stick is *as long* as the window is wide.

That pole is *as long* as the well is deep.

That bridge is *as long* as the river is wide.

An ox can draw as much as a horse, (can draw.)

— can lift as much as —.

— can write as well as —.

— can run as fast as —.

Lesson 3.—*not as—as*.

— is not as tall as —.

— is not as old as —.

— cannot lift as much as —.

— cannot run as fast as —.

That bush is not as high as the fence.

The moon is not as bright as the sun.

Susan's hair is not as black as Mary's.

Mr. —'s garden is not as large as ours.

*Section II.—The comparative of inferiority and superiority.**Lesson 4.— —er than, more than.*

John is $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{taller} \\ \text{stronger} \\ \text{older} \end{array} \right\}$ *than* Peter. Peter is $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{shorter} \\ \text{weaker} \\ \text{younger} \end{array} \right\}$ *than* John.

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{A stone is harder} \\ \text{A snow-ball is not as hard as} \end{array} \right\}$ *than* a snow-ball.

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{A stone is harder} \\ \text{A snow-ball is not as hard as} \end{array} \right\}$ *than* a stone.

My knife is sharper *than* yours.

Henry is taller *than* John, but *not so* strong.

This apple is sweeter *than* the other.

— is more $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{industrious} \\ \text{careful} \\ \text{prudent} \end{array} \right\}$ *than* —

— is less $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{beautiful} \\ \text{well-behaved} \\ \text{affectionate} \end{array} \right\}$ *than* —.

This stick is longer *than* the table is high, &c.

*Section III.—The —est of; the most of.**Lesson 5.*

Peter is taller *than* William. John is taller *than* Peter.

John is the tallest *of* the three.

— is the $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{oldest} \\ \text{tallest} \\ \text{strongest} \end{array} \right\}$ *of* these boys, girls, &c.

— is the $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{youngest} \\ \text{shortest} \\ \text{weakest} \end{array} \right\}$ *of* these girls, men, &c.

Sampson was the strongest *of* men.

Mr. — is the youngest *of* our teachers.

Bring me the largest *of* those books.

Give me the largest *of* your pencils.

Lesson 6.

——is the tallest boy *in* this class.

~~—~~ is the tallest boy *in* this Institution.

Mr. Astor is the richest man *in* New York.

Mr. P——'s oldest son is at college.

New York is the largest city in America.

Cain was the oldest son of Adam.

Benjamin was the youngest son of Jacob.

Lesson 7.

A. and B. are the tallest of these boys.

Miss L. and Miss Y. are the smallest girls in the Institution.

Mr. P. and Mr. M. are the oldest of our teachers.

The two strongest cocks in the farm-yard often fight each other till they are almost killed.

John is the oldest of these boys. George is the tallest.

Boys are *generally* more strong and *active* than girls.

The turkey is larger and stronger than the cock, but not so *courageous*.

*Lesson 8.**Questions on Comparison.*

Which is the tallest boy in this class ?

Which are the two tallest girls ?

Which are the prettiest of those books ?

Which is the widest, the East or the North river ?

Which is the strongest, Master S. or Master W. ?

Which of those girls is the tallest ?

Section IV.

Lesson 9.

Formation of the Comparative and Superlative.

1. Regular—*er—est*.

| | | | | | |
|-------|---------|-----------|--------|----------|--------------|
| long | longer | longest. | sweet | sweeter | sweetest. |
| short | shorter | shortest. | proud | prouder | proudest. |
| deep | deeper | deepest. | sharp | sharper | sharpest. |
| high | higher | highest. | cold | colder | coldest. |
| few | fewer | fewest. | bright | brighter | brightest. |
| low | lower | lowest. | warm | warmer | warmest, &c. |

2. Regular in—*r—st*.

| | | | | | |
|-------|--------|----------|-------|--------|-------------|
| white | whiter | whitest. | wise | wiser | wisest. |
| pale | paler | palest. | brave | braver | bravest &c. |

3. Regular in—*ier—iest*.

| | | | | | |
|--------|----------|------------|-------|---------|---------------|
| dirty | dirtier | dirtiest. | happy | happier | happiest. |
| dry | drier | driest. | heavy | heavier | heaviest. |
| pretty | prettier | prettiest. | silly | sillier | silliest, &c. |

4. Last consonant doubled.

| | | | | | |
|------|---------|-----------|-----|--------|--------------|
| red | redder | reddest. | fat | fatter | fattest. |
| flat | flatter | flattest. | big | bigger | biggest. |
| thin | thinner | thinnest. | hot | hotter | hottest, &c. |

5. Long words and words ending in *ful*, *less*, *ed*, *ous*, *ish*, *nt*, &c., are generally compared by *more* & *most*.

As, ragged *more ragged* *most ragged*. So the following.

| | | |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| careful | comfortable | industrious |
| careless | tired | obedient |
| crooked | beautiful | disobedient |
| cruel | foolish | troublesome |
| unhappy | ignorant | envious |
| contented | thoughtful | mischievous |
| generous | forgetful | selfish, &c. |

Lesson 10.

*Irregular Comparatives and Superlatives.*¹

| | | |
|--------|---------|-----------|
| good | better | best. |
| bad | worse | worst. |
| much | more | most. |
| many | more | most. |
| little | less | least. |
| far | farther | farthest. |

Examples.

— is a *better* boy than —.

— has a *better* knife than —.

Mr. —'s horse is *better* than Mr. —'s.

I have a *better* hat than you have. (See Note 4.)

This pen is *better* than that. This is a *better pen* than that.

The Bible is the *best* of books.

Wheat flour makes the *best* bread.

The *best* horses may stumble sometimes.

Water is the *best* drink, rum is the *worst*.

Which of these pictures do you like *best*?

Which of these lessons is the *best* written?

To steal is *bad*; to tell lies is *worse*.

— has been sick some time. He was *better* yesterday, but is *worse* to day.

Which is the *worst*, a rotten apple or a rotten potato?

— has *more* books than —, but *fewer* newspapers.

— has *more* money than —, but *less* land.

— is the *least* of these girls.

It is *further* to Albany than to Newburgh, and *further* still to Troy.

¹ good-natured
ill-tempered

better-natured
worse-tempered

the best-natured, &c.
the worst-tempered.

Which is the *furthest*, to Brooklyn or to Newark?
You can shoot *further* with a gun *than* with a pistol.

Lesson 11.

Other Irregular Superlatives.

First. A— will go out *first*, B— *next*, and C— *last*.

Last. Sunday is the *first* day of the week, Saturday the *last*.

Next. — is the tallest of these boys, — is the *next* tallest.

The tiger is, *next* to the lion, the most terrible of wild beasts.

Topmost. I saw a boy sitting on the *topmost* limb of a high tree.

Hindmost. A dog chased a flock of sheep and seized the *hindmost*.

Foremost. The sheep ran till the *foremost* fell into a deep ditch.

| | | |
|------------|---|---|
| Uppermost. | { | I saw two boys <i>wrestling</i> . They both fell. The biggest boy was <i>undermost</i> , but he rolled over the other, and got <i>uppermost</i> . |
| Undermost. | | |

When you take out a set of *bars*, you take out the *uppermost* first. When you put them in again, you put in the *undermost* first.

NOTE.—Some adjectives are not compared; as *whole*, *right*, *left*, *round*, *square*, *dead*, *live*, *enough*, &c.: also all numerals. We say quite round, more nearly round, (not rounder,) almost round, &c.

Also, more than forty, &c. Several words are used to increase or diminish the signification of an adjective without comparison. The Most-High, the All-Wise; dark, rather dark, quite dark, very dark.

Section V.

Lesson 14.

Comparatives and Superlatives qualified by other words.

The sun is *much* brighter than the moon.

Some of the stars are *much* brighter than *others*.

A. is *much* taller than B.

Some men are *much* taller and stronger than *others*.

| | | | | |
|---------|--------|--------------|-------------------|--------|
| A horse | } is { | a great deal | } stronger than { | a man. |
| A lion | | far | | a dog. |
| An ox | | much | | a ram. |

Mr B. is { *a good deal*
considerably } older than Mr. G.

Henry is { *rather*
a little } taller than William.

A mouse is *far* less than a cat.

A river is *far* deeper than a brook.

The *sea* is deeper *by far* than a pond or river.

The moon is higher *by far* than the highest trees.

David is the tallest of these boys *by a good deal*.

John is *a little* taller than James. James is *almost as tall as* John.

Is John taller than James? Yes—*a little*.

Is James as tall as John? Not *quite*.

Mary is *nearly as tall as* Susan. She grows *faster*; and will soon be *quite as tall*, if not taller.

Phoebe's hair is *rather* darker than Emily's, but not *quite as dark as* Julia's.

This is *much the best* book I have.

Recapitulation.

| | | | |
|----------------------------|----------------|--------------|------------------|
| Almost | } as tall as—. | Rather | } taller than—. |
| Nearly | | A little | |
| <i>Hardly</i> ¹ | | A good deal | |
| <i>Scarcely</i> | | Considerably | |
| Not quite | | Far | |
| Quite | | A great deal | |
| | | | the tallest of—. |

NOTE 1.—We say *very* tall, *much* taller, *much* the tallest; also, *much* hurt, *very much* hurt, &c. but *not very* taller, &c., or *very hurt*, &c. The teacher will explain that *much* cannot qualify adjectives in the positive, nor can *very* be joined alone to comparatives, superlatives, or participles.

NOTE 2.—Adjectives which are not compared, may yet be qualified by other words—almost dead, nearly dead, quite dead. *Dead* takes *more* before it in the phrase, "more dead than alive."

*Lesson 15.**Comparison of number, measure, weight, &c.*

- { T. is three inches taller than S.
 { S. is three inches shorter than T.

Miss G. is half an inch taller than Miss H.

Mr. — is *about* two feet taller than Miss L.

Miss K. is a year older than Miss J.

Miss M. is *about* five years older than Miss N.

(So, some months older, a year and a half older, nearly twenty years older, several years older, or younger, &c.)

The North River is half a mile wider than the East River.

It is a hundred miles further to Boston than it is to Hartford.

¹ *Hardly* and *scarcely* can be used with both forms of comparison, *hardly as long as*,—*hardly longer than*—&c. They also qualify *enough*; *hardly enough*, *hardly long enough*, *scarcely water enough*. We also say; *quite enough*; *not quite enough*.

- { H. is five pounds heavier than L. (or lighter than, &c.)
 { H. is heavier by five pounds than L.
 { H. *weighs* five pounds more than L. (or less than, &c.)
 { H. *weighs* more by five pounds than L.

Mr. A. has thirty sheep, Mr. B. has twenty. How many has Mr. A. more than Mr. B.?

(The teacher will give other examples.)

Lesson 16.

Twice as—: three times as, &c. (See Note 5.)

This stick is twice as long as the other.

That book is twice as thick as this.

The shot-tower is three times as high as this house.

Mr. R.—'s coat cost twice as much as Mr. P.—'s.

_____ is twice as old as—.

{ A. has four times as many books as B.

{ B. has only a quarter as many books as A.

This large slate is a hundred times as heavy as the small one.

{ This book is *about* three times as heavy as that.

{ The small book is about one-third as heavy as the large one.

A cow is *about* ten times as large as a sheep.

This string is *just* twice as long as the table is wide.

This stick is *just* half as long as the table is wide.

The string is four times as long as the stick.

This stick is *half as long again* as the other. (See Note 5.)

I have seen trees twice as high as this house.

A horse can run twice as fast as a man.

A locomotive can run twice as fast as a horse.

A bird can fly twice as fast as a horse can run.

A horse can draw ten times as much as a man.

An elephant can draw five times as much as a horse.

A dog chased a boy. The boy ran *as fast as he could*.

but the dog ran twice as fast, and soon caught him, and tore his pantaloons.

Always *try* to write as well as you can, and you will write better every day, and in a few months, will write twice as well as you can now.

Lesson 17.

One of the—est, some of the—est, &c.

A., B., C., and D., are the tallest of these boys.

B. is *one of the tallest* of these boys.

Miss X., Y., and Z., are the smallest girls in the Institution.

Miss Z. is the smallest girl in the Institution.

Miss X. is *one of the smallest* girls in the Institution.

Miss X. and Miss Y. are *two of the smallest*, &c.

Mr. — is one of the richest men in New-York.

The lily is one of the most beautiful flowers.

At the wharves in New-York, we can see some of the largest ships in the world.

On — street are some of the finest houses in the city.

Some of the oldest boys work in the garden.

Eight hundred *of the largest* houses, stores and *offices* in the city, were *destroyed* by the *great fire* on the 16th of December, 1835.

Lesson 18.

Further examples in Comparison. Familiar Expressions.

I saw a very old man a few days ago. His hair and beard were as white as snow. His hand shook *like* a leaf.¹

¹ Adjectives and Adverbs (or qualities) are compared by *as*, &c. Verbs (or actions) by *like*.

Mary's cheeks are as red as roses. Susan's hair is as black as a crow. Emma's arm is as white as a lily.

At sunset the *skies* are sometimes as red as fire.

A farmer, when he mows, keeps his scythe as sharp as a razor.

There are many children in the city as dirty as pigs, as ignorant as savages, and as rude as bears.

That man is as strong as an ox. That boy is as *nimble* as a squirrel. That boy is as *cunning* as a fox.

That boy can dive like a duck, and swim like a fish.

That boy can jump like a kid, and climb like a cat.

Miss L. behaves like a lady, but Miss X. behaves like a fool.

It is colder to day than it was yesterday.

The *weather* is more pleasant in fall than it is in spring.

In Canada the winters are much colder than in New Jersey.

The days are much longer in summer than in winter. The nights, *on the contrary*, are much longer in winter than in summer.

The days are longest in June, and shortest in December.

Your shadow, at noon, is longer in winter than in summer.

July is the hottest month of the year. January and February are the coldest months.

I have seen rail-cars as large as a small house. Some hogs are as heavy as a small cow.

Trees grow taller and straighter in a thick wood.

This hat is as good as new.

If you throw a board into a pond, it will *float*, because wood is lighter than water. If you throw in a stone, it will *sink*, because stone is heavier than water.

Please to give me some paper. Is this enough? It is

not half enough,—not near enough,—not quite enough,—not as much as I want, &c.

It is enough. It will do. There is as much as I want, &c.

There is *too* much. There is more than you want, &c.
— knows as much as —. You know that as well as I, &c.

CHAPTER III.—HISTORY OF ANIMALS.

Section 1.—Animals in General.

Animals live, move, feel, eat. They are born or hatched. They grow larger. When they are full grown, they generally have young ones. After some time they grow old and die.

Many animals die young *from accidents, from sickness, or from want of food*. Many are killed and eaten by other animals.

In all these things animals are like men. But animals cannot *think*. They cannot speak, or read, or write. They never make a fire or cook their food. They never make themselves clothes; but some do build themselves houses or nests. They cannot make bows and arrows, or axes, or guns. They never build bridges or ships. They never plough, or plant, or hoe, to raise corn, wheat, potatoes, &c.

Animals cannot worship God. They have *no souls*. When they die, God does not *reward* or *punish* them. They have nothing to hope, and nothing to fear, after death.

Few animals live as long as man; but some live longer. The elephant lives more than a hundred years, and *so does*

the swan. People say that the goose, the crow, the eagle, and some other birds live nearly a hundred years. Lions sometimes live sixty or seventy years.

But the dog, the cat, the cow, and the sheep live *only* from twelve to twenty years. Some animals live less than ten years. Many insects live only a few months, and some only a few days.

Section II.—Classes of Animals.

There are many kinds of animals.

Quadrupeds have four feet, and are *wholly* or *partly* covered with hair. They *bring forth* their young alive, and suckle them. The young of some animals are born blind and *helpless*, their mothers must take good care of them. Others are born with their eyes open, and can walk and run before they are a day old.

Birds have two feet, two wings, and a bill. They are covered with feathers. The feathers on their wings and tails are longer than the rest. They have a crop (or small stomach) on the lower part of the neck. They build nests, lay eggs, and sit on them till they are hatched. They take care of their young ones. Some bring food to their young in the nest; others lead them out to look for food.

Some *Reptiles* have four feet, as the frog, tortoise, and lizard. Some have no feet, as the snake. They are called *amphibious* animals, because they can live on land part of the time, and in water part of the time. They have neither feathers nor hair. Some are covered with *scales*, some with hard *shells*, some are *naked*. They lay eggs, but they do not make nests or sit on them. Their

eggs are not covered with a shell, but with a thick skin. They dig a hole, and bury their eggs, and leave them to be hatched by the *heat of the sun*. When the young ones are hatched, they must *take care of themselves*.

Quadrupeds, birds, and reptiles breathe as we do.

Fishes swim in the water. They do not breathe as we do. They have *gills* instead of *lungs*. They cannot live long out of the water. Most fishes are covered with *scales*, but many are naked. Fishes have several *fins*. Their largest and strongest fin is at the end of the tail. They lay many small eggs called *spawn*. Some large fishes, as the whale, bring forth their young alive, suckle them and take care of them; but most fishes drop their *spawn* in shallow water, and never take care of the young fish, but often *devour* them.

Quadrupeds, birds, reptiles and most fishes have red blood, and bones. The blood of fishes is not near as warm as the blood of quadrupeds and birds. They are called *cold-blooded animals*.

Insects are small animals. They have six or eight legs, and sometimes more. Some have two wings, some four wings, and some no wings. Their bodies *seem* to be cut in two, and united by very slender *necks*, like a lady laced very tight in the *waist*. They have no red blood, nor bones *within* their bodies. They lay eggs, and most insects *change* their *form* several times.

Worms have no feet, no wings, no bones, no eyes, no ears, no red blood. They cannot see, hear, or cry; but they live, move, feel and eat.

Shell-animals are like worms. They live in a hard shell. Some have but one shell, as the *snail*. Others have two shells joined together by a *hinge*, as the *clam*, *oyster*, *muscle*, &c.

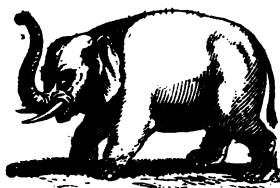
All animals eat when they are hungry, drink when they are thirsty, and rest when they are tired. When they are young, they are strong and *lively*. When they are old, they are feeble and *inactive*. When they are dead, their flesh, if the weather is warm, soon *rots* and *stinks*. In a few months there is nothing *left* but their bones or shells.

Some animals sleep by night, and feed by day. Others sleep all day, and go out at night to look for food. Others go out only by *twilight*, or by *moonlight*.

Some animals live on *vegetable food*. Some live on *animal food*. Some *prefer* the warm flesh and blood of living animals. Some prefer *putrid* flesh, (or *carriou*.)

Section III.—Quadrupeds.

1. THE ELEPHANT is the largest of quadrupeds, but the whale is larger *by far* than the elephant.



There are many elephants in Asia and Africa. They are caught, and *tamed*, and kings and rich men ride on their backs.

The elephant is a very *sagacious* animal, and very fond of his master.

An elephant one day put his trunk through the window into a tailor's shop, *perhaps* to ask for something to eat. One of the tailors *pricked* him with a needle. The elephant went away *quietly* to a pond of muddy water. Here he filled his trunk and returned to the shop, and *squirted* the dirty water *all over* the tailors, and spoiled their work.

Elephants live in warm countries. They have *but little* hair, and cannot live in cold countries without a warm house, or warm *clothing*.

There are no wild elephants in America, but tame elephants are brought in ships from Asia or Africa, *for a show*.



2. THE RHINOCEROS is nearly as large as the elephant, but his legs are much shorter. He is a *stupid* animal. He *wallows* in the mud like a hog. An old rhinoceros has a very hard and sharp horn on his nose. His skin is *so* thick and hard *that* you cannot cut it with a knife. He

lives in Africa



3. THE HIPPOPOTAMUS is nearly as large as the elephant. He lives at the bottom of a large river, and comes on shore by night to eat. He

destroys much corn. He is found in Africa, but not in this country. He has strong teeth, and can bite a piece out of the side of a boat. It is dangerous to *disturb* him.

Beasts of Prey.¹ The Cat kind.

THE LION, TIGER, PANTHER, LEOPARD, and LYNX, all have sharp claws like a cat. They can draw their claws

¹ *Beasts of prey* are all beasts that seize and devour other animals, as the cat kind, the dog kind, the weasel kind, &c.

in, or *stretch* them out when they *please*. Most of them can see better by night than by day. They generally sleep all day, and go out in the evening to *hunt*. They do not chase their *prey* far, or hunt *by the scent*, like the dog and wolf, but *lie in wait*, and *spring suddenly* on it.



4. THE LION is brave and generous. He will not hurt you, when he is not hungry. He is called the king of beasts. The lion *growls* and *roars*. His roar is very terrible. Other wild beasts, when they hear it, tremble and fly. There are no lions in this country, *except* those you see in strong iron cages carried about for a show.

A bad boy found a little dog in the street (in London.) He carried it to the *menagerie* and threw it into the cage of a large lion. The poor dog was *dreadfully* frightened, and expected to be eaten alive,¹ but the lion pitied him, and did not hurt him, but gave him part of his own food. They lived together very *affectionately* for several years.

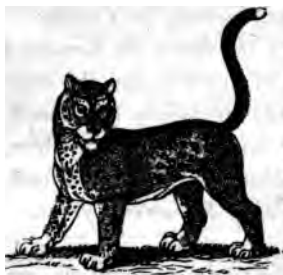
¹ The teacher will take the opportunity to explain the phrases, *eaten alive*, *swallowed alive*, *skinned alive*, *buried alive*, *roasted alive*, &c., as: "a cruel boy skinned a live frog." "Eels are sometimes skinned alive." "The Hindoos sometimes burn widows alive with the bodies of their husbands," &c.



5. THE TIGER is found in Asia, and usually lives in woods near streams and swamps. He is a beautiful animal. His hair is smooth, and of a yellow color, with very black stripes running down his sides. He is very fierce and cruel. He is as strong as the lion, but not so generous.



6. THE PANTHER is smaller than the lion and tiger. He is about six feet long. His color is a bright yellow, with black spots, except on the lower part of the body, which is white. He has short and pointed ears, restless eyes, and a strong cry. He is more fierce than the tiger, and delights in shedding blood. He climbs trees like a cat, and springs from them upon his *victim*. The young ones are playful like kittens, but it is *dangerous* to play with them.



7. THE LEOPARD is a native of Asia and Africa. He is smaller than the panther, but much more beautiful. He is a very fierce animal and attacks both man and beast. The leopards are hunted principally *for the sake of* their skins, which are very valuable. When they cannot find food enough in the desert, they sometimes come to the sheepfolds and *destroy* a great many sheep.



8. THE LYNX inhabits the colder parts of Europe, Asia and America. Its tail is not more than six inches long. The upper part of the body is of an ash color. The lower part is white. It climbs the highest trees of the forest, and lies hid in the branches to watch for weasels, squirrels and other small animals. Its sight is very *acute* and it can see its prey at a greater distance than any other carnivorous animal.

It is said, in the Natural History of Norway, that one of these animals, while trying to undermine a sheepfold, was perceived by an old he-goat, who watched him very narrowly, and the moment his head appeared inside the fold, butted him so violently, that he laid him dead in his burrow.



9. We keep CATS in our houses to catch rats and mice. Kittens are born blind. When they are about nine days old, their eyes open, and they soon begin to crawl about and play. The old cat catches mice, squirrels, and small birds, and carries them to her kittens. Cats sometimes make a very unpleasant noise at night, called *caterwauling*. When a cat is hungry she *meows*. When you *stroke* her back she *purrs*.

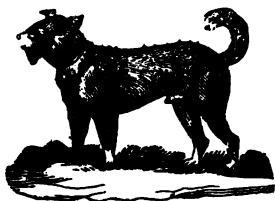
The Dog Kind.

There are many kinds of dogs. Here you have pictures of six of them. They are very *various* in *shape*, *size* and *color*, but they are *nearly all* faithful and sagacious animals.



10. THE MASTIFF is very large, strong and courageous. He can seize a man and hold him fast without hurting him. Mastiffs are kept to watch rich men's houses at night.

The *bull-dog* is like the *mastiff*, but a little smaller. He will seize a bull by the nose and hold him fast. The under jaw of the bull dog is a little longer than the upper jaw.



11. THE TERRIER is a small but courageous fellow. He will creep into holes, and under barns, after weasels, foxes, squirrels, rabbits, rats, &c.



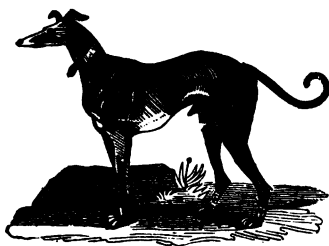
12. THE HOUND has long *pendent* ears. He can smell better than any other dog. Hunters keep hounds to find foxes, hares, deer, &c., *by the scent*. Sometimes many hunters ride to-

gether, with a pack of hounds, after a fox, a hare, or a deer. The hounds follow the scent, with their noses near the ground, and the hunters ride up hill and down hill, jump over fences and ditches, and swim rivers. Often a horse stumbles, and throws his rider, and often the horse and rider fall together. This is dangerous *sport*, and it is foolish to spend so much time to catch a fox or a little *hare*. It is better to catch them in *traps*.

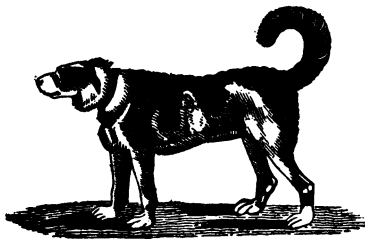


13. THE POINTER is a very sagacious animal. When he finds a partridge or a flock of quails, he stops near them, and points toward them with his nose.

His master then comes up and shoots the bird, *as* it rises to fly.



14. THE GREYHOUND is a tall, slender dog. He cannot smell well, but when he sees a deer or a rabbit, he runs after it so *swiftly* that he soon catches it. The greyhound can run faster than any other quadruped.



15. THE NEWFOUNDLAND Dog is nearly as large as the mastiff. He is very faithful and sagacious. He will carry a basket in his mouth, and will draw a little wagon. If his master

falls into the water, he will jump in and help him to the shore. A little boy once fell into deep water. There was no person near to help him, but his father's dog jumped into the water, and swam to the boy and carried him to the shore in his mouth.

Ladies sometimes keep little *lap-dogs* and carry them about, *as a little girl does a doll*.

Very many years ago there were no tame dogs. All dogs were wild, and were *fierce*, dangerous animals, like the wolf. Some *ingenious* man caught puppies, tamed them, and taught them to hunt for him. Other men did the same, and now, there are tame dogs in all countries.

Puppies, like kittens, are born blind. When they are a few months old, they are very *playful*.

When a dog is hungry, or wants to get into the house, he *whines*. When he is angry, he *growls*. When he sees a squirrel on a tree, he *barks* to call his master. When he is hurt, he *howls*.

Some dogs are *useless* and troublesome. They bark at people, and tear the pantaloons of little boys going to school. Some dogs even kill sheep. Such dogs must be killed.

But many dogs are very *useful*. If a stranger comes near the house at night, they bark loudly and *awake* their master. A mastiff will seize a thief at night, and hold him *fast* till morning.

A farmer was attacked in the field by an ugly bull, and almost killed. His dog heard him cry, and ran as fast as he could, and seized the bull by the nose, and *thus* saved his master's life.

A woman was asleep in her bed-room. Her little dog slept under the bed. The house *took fire*, but the woman did not awake. The dog smelled and heard the fire. He

jumped on the bed, and *awaked* his *mistress*. She jumped out of bed, and caught up her little child, and tried to go down stairs, but found that the stairs were *all on fire*. She threw the bed out of the window, and dropped the child and the dog down on the bed, and then jumped down, and hurt her feet; but she was very glad to *escape* with her child from the fire. The house and all the furniture were *destroyed*. When her husband returned home the next day, he was much frightened to see a great heap of ashes *instead of* his comfortable home; but soon he was very glad to find his wife and child alive and well at the house of a kind neighbor. They praised the dog, and treated him kindly *as long as* he lived.

When you can read books *easily*, you will often find *interesting anecdotes* of the dog.

Dogs sometimes *run mad* in hot weather. A *mad dog* does not know his own master. He cannot drink, but runs about and bites every thing. If he bites another dog, that dog will run mad *too*, and must be *immediately* killed. If a mad dog bites any person, that person will sometimes be well for a few weeks, then he will *suddenly* be sick with the *hydrophobia*. He cannot drink water, and if he sees it, he *falls* into *convulsions*,¹ and almost always dies in a few days. The doctors cannot *cure* the *hydrophobia*, but they can often *prevent* it, by cutting out the wounded flesh, or by *flashing gunpowder* on it soon after it is bitten, or by giving strong medicines. All mad dogs must be killed. They are very dangerous.

1. 'Fall into fits,' 'go into fits,' are phrases which require attention, as the pupil will be apt to take the words *fall* and *go* in a literal sense. We can say either *to swoon*, (to faint,) or *to fall into a swoon*; but the words *fit* and *convulsions*, being only nouns, we are compelled to prefix an expletive verb.

In some countries dogs are used to draw sledges. Five dogs are yoked together to draw one man

These are wild and fierce animals of the dog kind. The *Wolf* and *Hyena* are larger than a *common dog*. The *Jackal* is about as large as a dog. The *Fox* is smaller.

All these animals hunt by the scent, like the dog. They chase their prey till they *tire it down*, and so catch it.

They often hunt in *packs*.



16. THE FOX is very *cunning*, and a *great thief*. He digs a hole in the ground, where he sleeps all day, and at night goes out to look for *prey*. If he can get into the goose-pen, he will kill nearly all the geese, and carry them off on his back. Then he eats part and hides the *rest* till he is hungry again. He often *sneaks* round the barn and tries to catch the hens and turkeys, but if he hears the dog bark, he runs away as fast as he can.



17. THE WOLF destroys deer and sheep. A wolf can carry a sheep in his mouth, and run away with it faster than a man can run after him; but a large dog will soon *overtake* him, and drive him away from the sheep.

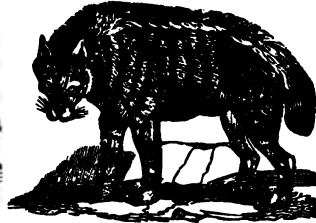
Sometimes several wolves join together to hunt a bison or buffalo. Sometimes the wolves *form a circle*¹ round a herd

¹ Soldiers *form* in straight lines; boys and girls *form a circle*, hold each others hands and dance; men often *form a procession*, and walk through the streets,

of deer, and drive them towards a *precipice*. The deer run as fast as they can, till the foremost suddenly fall over the precipice, and are killed. Then the wolves go down and eat them.



18 THE JACKAL.



19. THE HYENA.

Jackals and *Hyenas* are *numerous* in Asia and Africa, but fortunately there are none in this country. They eat *carriion*, and sometimes when very hungry, they will dig open graves, and devour the dead bodies. Hyenas are very dangerous animals. They sometimes seize and carry off children. In some countries people hear wolves or jackals *howling* and *yelling* all night.

Animals of the Weasel Kind.



20. THE WEASEL is about seven inches long, and is active and handsome. Its color is a reddish brown, but white under its throat and belly. Sometimes it is white all over. It has whiskers like a cat, a bushy tail and small black eyes.



21. THE SKUNK is about sixteen inches long, and of a black and white color. In summer he lives in woods, in burrows, under rocks, but in winter he remains about barns and out-houses.

There are many *bad smells*. The smells of *carrion*, of rotten eggs, of rotten potatoes, and of a drunkard, are very bad smells, but the smell of a skunk is the worst of all. If you *disturb* a skunk, he will emit such a fetid odor that you will *have to*¹ stop your nose and run away.



22. THE MARTEN is rather longer than the skunk; it has also a longer and more bushy tail; its colors are more beautiful. It is covered with a fine, downy fur, intermixed with hair which is very valuable and much

used in the making of ladies' muffs and tippets.

These animals have long, slender bodies and short legs. They creep into holes after rabbits, rats, &c. They often creep into a hen house and suck the eggs. When the woman comes to get her eggs, she finds only empty shells.

Small Quadrupeds of the Rat Kind.



23. THE MOUSE is sometimes not bigger than a man's thumb, and a very young mouse is no bigger than a bean. The mouse is the smallest of quadrupeds. Mice are very troublesome. They eat holes in bags to get the flour and meal.

¹ *Have to* is nearly equivalent to *must*, perhaps more nearly to *be obliged to*.

They sometimes eat a hole into a large cheese, and then the old mouse and her young ones live in the cheese, *till* they eat all the *inside*, and leave only an *empty shell*. Sometimes a young mouse gets drowned by falling into a pan of milk.



24. THE RAT is much larger than the mouse. Rats live in cellars, in the walls of old houses, and in barns. They eat our meat, corn, and other grain. Rats sometimes *gnaw*¹ a hole into a barrel to get pork.



25. THE MOLE is hardly bigger than a large mouse. It is nearly blind. It lives in holes under ground and eats roots and insects. The mole has strong fore paws, and can dig very fast. It has a *snout* almost like a pig. Its eyes are *so* small *that* you can hardly find them. The gardener does not like to have moles in his garden. They spoil the *beds*.²



26. THE DORMOUSE lives in England. It is no bigger than a large mouse. It sleeps in its hole all winter, and in the spring it awakes, and comes out to play in the *sun shine*.



27. THE HEDGEHOG is not much larger than a rat. It is covered with sharp prickles about as long as a needle. When it is *attacked*, it *rolls* itself *up*

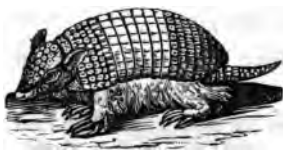
1 A dog *gnaws* a bone.

2 Garden *beds* for flowers, vegetables, &c.

like a ball, and other animals *dare* not touch it, *for* it pricks their mouths.



28. THE PORCUPINE is as large as a small dog, and is covered with long sharp quills. He kills serpents by forming himself into a ball and then rolling his quills over them. The Indians make necklaces of these quills.



29 THE ARMADILLO has a hard shell on its back like a tortoise. It is found in *South America*, and is larger than a cat. It is harmless and inoffensive; lives in burrows under ground, and feeds on roots, fruits and vegetables.



30. THE BAT can fly like a bird, but it has no feathers. It is covered with fine short hair. Its wings are two thin pieces of skin spread out by its long claws. It flies about by night, and eats moths and other insects. In the morning it goes into its hole, and sleeps all day. It hangs by its hind *claws*, and sleeps with its head downward. It cannot walk or run. *Though* it flies like a bird, it does not lay eggs, but brings forth its young alive, and suckles them.

The common bat is no bigger than a mouse; but in

1. *Though* and *yet* are used when one fact seems somewhat inconsistent with another. "Though John is tall, he is not strong." "John is tall, *yet* he is not strong." "*Though* John is tall, *yet* he is not strong." The clause beginning with *though* may be transposed, but not the one beginning with *yet*. "It is not cold, *though* it is winter." "*I am not hungry, though* I have had no dinner," &c.

warm countries, there are bats as large as a cat. Some kinds of bats fly into houses when people are asleep, and suck their blood. *Fortunately* our bats never do so.

Amphibious Quadrupeds.

These are called *amphibious* quadrupeds, because they can live some time under water. They are *web-footed*, and love to swim, but cannot stay always under water like fish. They *have to* come up to breathe.



31. THE OTTER is about as large as a fox, or larger. He digs a hole, on the bank of a river or lake, to sleep in. He swims and dives in the water and catches fish to eat. The fur of the otter is very fine and soft.

The finest gentlemen's caps are made of otters' skin.



32. THE BEAVER is about as large as the otter. Its fur is very *valuable*. The finest hats are made of it.

Beavers are very sagacious animals. They *assemble in companies* of two or three hundred to build their houses *for winter*. They cut down small trees with their teeth, and make *mortar* with their feet and tails. They build a *dam* with small trees, sticks, grass and mud across some brook or small river. Then they build their houses in the pond. *Each* house has one story above the water, and one story below. The walls of the houses are made of sticks, and *plastered* over with mud.

The beavers live in these houses during the winter. They eat the small branches of trees in winter; but in summer, they eat leaves and fruit.



33. THE SEAL.



34. THE WALRUS.

These are *also* amphibious quadrupeds. They live in the sea, but often come on shore and sleep in the *sunshine*. They cannot walk well, but can swim very fast. The *Seal* is not much larger than a dog, but the *Walrus* is much larger than an ox.

Many men go in ships to catch seals. In some *wild* and *desert* places, the seals come *on shore* to *rest themselves* and *bask* in the sunshine. Here the men shoot them from behind rocks. They make oil from the fat of the seal. His skin is used to make coarse caps, and to *cover* trunks. Part of the skins are made into leather. *Shoes* are often made of *seal-skin*.

The Monkey Kind.



35. THE APE.



36. THE MONKEY.

There are many different kinds of *apes* and *monkeys*.

They all have hands like a man, and their feet *look* like hands. They live in trees in warm countries. There are no wild monkeys in this country, but they are often caught and brought here in ships for a show. Monkeys have long tails, and some can hang to trees by their tails. Apes have no tails.



37. THE BABOON.



38. THE ORANG-OUTANG

Baboons are larger than monkeys. They have short tails, and are very ugly and mischievous.

The *Orang-Outang* is a large kind of ape. He *looks* very much like a man, and is very *cunning*, but cannot speak, or learn to write. *Orang-outangs* live in the woods in Asia and Africa. They fight with clubs and stones. They can drive away the elephant by throwing stones and clubs from the trees, and then have all the forest to themselves.

When the negroes want fruit or nuts, they throw stones at the monkeys in the trees, and the monkeys get angry and throw down the nuts at their *enemies*. *Thus* the negroes can get the nuts without climbing the high trees.



39. THE OPOSSUM is a *curious* animal and carries its young ones in a pouch under its belly. It has paws *somewhat* like hands. It cannot run fast, but climbs trees and hangs to the branches by its paws and tail. If you catch an opossum, it will lie *still* and *pretend* to be dead, but *as soon as* you leave it, it will crawl away as fast as it can. A fat opossum is good to eat.



40. THE JERBOA.



41. THE KANGAROO.

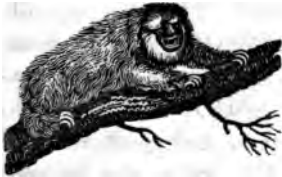
The *Jerboa* is a small animal. It does not run or walk *on all fours*, like other animals, but jumps on its hind legs.

The *Kangaroo* is found only in New Holland, on the other side of the *world*. It is as large as a sheep. It never goes on *all fours*, but jumps on its hind legs and tail five or six yards at one leap.¹ *In this way* it can go faster than a dog can run.

¹ Some men can jump from a bank, twenty feet *at one leap*. I have seen boys jump ten yards at *three standing leaps*.



42. You have seen a RACCOON. It is a very cunning, lively animal. It eats corn and fruit, and climbs trees. It is very common in America, and is nearly as large as a fox.



43. THE SLOTH lives in trees, and eats leaves. It hangs under the branches by its strong claws. It moves very slowly, and can hardly walk on the ground. It is so strong that it can hold a large dog fast with its claws.



44. THE ANT-EATER has no teeth, but it has very strong claws. Its snout is very long, and its tongue is still longer. It feeds on ants. When it finds an ant-hill, it thrusts out its long tongue close by the hill, and the ants, thinking it a piece of raw flesh, crawl on it by hundreds, when the ant-eater suddenly draws in its tongue and swallows them all.



45. RABBITS were brought to this country from England. Some are black, some brown, some quite white, and some parti-colored. They dig holes under the house or barn, and run about

the farm and garden at night. Sometimes they *do damage*¹ by eating cabbages and other vegetables.



46. THE HARE (or wild rabbit,) runs wild about the woods and fields. He does not dig deep holes, but often hides himself in a stone fence, or a hollow *stump*, or in a hole among rocks. Often he sits all day in the grass, and lets men and dogs *pass* pretty near him, but if they come too near, he jumps up, and runs away so fast that he is out of sight² in a few seconds. When the dogs chase him, he turns and *doubles* many times, and often gets away from them among the bushes.

If you catch a hare or rabbit, it does not *squall* like a pig, or bite like a rat or squirrel. It is *meek* and *patient*.

Our wild rabbits are all brown, except under the belly and tail. In Canada, hares become white in winter. In England there are hares three times as large as ours.



47. There are many kinds of *squirrels*. Some are not as big as a rat, and some are half as large as a rabbit. There are *striped squirrels*, *red squirrels*, *black squirrels*, *gray squirrels*, and *flying squirrels*. The flying squirrels are the smallest, and the gray and black squirrels the largest.

The squirrel has a long bushy tail. His fore paws are somewhat like hands. He will sit up on his hind feet,

¹ *Do damage*; there is much *damage done*; there is no *damage done*; careless people must pay for the *damage they do*.

² The teacher will explain the phrases; *out of sight*, *in sight*, *not in sight*, *in view*, *in full view*; *so*, *out of hearing*, *out of reach*, &c.

spread his tail over his back, and hold a nut in his fore paws. *In this way* he often sits on a rail, and gnaws holes in nuts, and *so* picks out the *kernel*. If you go near him, he runs up a tree, or under a large stone. It is hard to catch a squirrel *alive*, and when you catch him, he will try to bite your fingers.



and can jump with them twenty yards, but cannot fly upward or turn like a bird. It lives in hollow trees.

49. THE GUINEA PIG is not as big as a rabbit. Its neck and legs are short. It is very *timid*, but cannot run as fast as a rabbit. It has no tail. It looks ¹ a little like a pig.



Guinea pigs are kept tame in England. They were brought from Africa. They are very

cleanly, and often lick each other clean.



50. You have seen a BEAR. He is a strong ugly animal, as large as a small cow. A bear is sometimes tamed. He can stand on his hind legs and dance *awk-*

¹ Look like, sound like, feel like, smell like, taste like; as: That boy looks like Peter. That noise sounded like a gun. That flower smells like tea &c.

wardly to make people laugh. Wild bears are fond of chesnuts and whortle berries. They sometimes steal pigs. A bear *hugs* with his fore paws. He can *squeeze* a man to death. He is fond of honey and sugar.

I heard that a man found a great hollow tree full of honey. The top of the tree was broken off by the wind, and the man climbed up, but slipped, and fell down in the hollow. He sank into the honey *up to his middle*, and could not get out again. He cried for help, but there was no body near. Here he *stuck fast* two days, and expected to be starved to death. At last a bear smelled the honey and climbed up the tree, and began to climb down the hollow towards the honey. The man caught hold of the bear by his long hair, and shouted, and the bear was frightened, and climbed out as fast as he could, dragging the man after him. When the man got to the top of the tree, he *let go*, and the bear ran off, while the man went home. His wife laughed to see him covered *all over* with honey, but was very *glad* that he had escaped from the hollow tree and from the bear.

The bear sleeps nearly all winter. He is very fat in the fall, but very lean in the spring.



51. THE WHITE BEAR is much larger than the common bear. He lives in very cold countries. He eats seals and fish. He sometimes crosses the sea on large pieces of ice. He is a very dangerous and terrible animal.



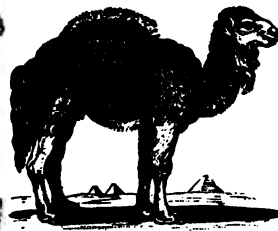
52. THE BADGER digs a deep hole in the earth, where he sleeps all day. At night he crawls out to look for food, and catches young rabbits, young birds, and other small animals. His legs are short, and he cannot run very fast. His flesh is not good for food. There are no badgers in New York or New Jersey, but they are common in Europe. At the west there is a kind of badger called a *ground hog*.



53. THE WOODCHUCK is as large as a large cat. His hair is coarse. His skin makes good *whip-lashes*. He cannot run fast, but digs a hole in the ground and hides himself. He is fond of green corn. Woodchucks are *numerous* in *some parts* of this country.



54. THE CAMEL.



55. THE DROMEDARY.

Some *Camels* have two humps on their backs. Others have but one. These last are called *Dromedaries*.

The Arabs ride on camels. They will go several days without drinking. They *travel* across wide *deserts*. Neither horses nor oxen can live in those deserts. A camel can carry as much as two horses. The Arabs drink camel's milk.



called *alpaca* is made of this wool.

65. THE LAMA is like the camel, but it is much smaller, and has no hump. It can carry one hundred pounds. It is found in South America. Some kinds of lama are covered with long fine wool. Very fine cloth



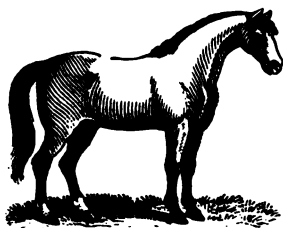
57. THE GIRAFFE lives in Africa. He is much the tallest of quadrupeds. He is much taller than the elephant, but not near as thick and heavy. He has a very long neck, and can lift his head high enough to eat the leaves and small branches of trees.

The Horse Kind.

58. THE ZEBRA lives in Africa. He is very wild, very *handsome*, and very *swift*. Its skin is as smooth as silk, and ornamented with beautiful stripes, like ribands, which are brown and white on the male, black and white on the female.



59. THE ASS is kept tame, and carries *burdens* like the horse and camel. In some countries men ride on asses. There are not many asses in this country, but we often see *mules* drawing wagons. *Mules* are part horse and part ass. All these large quadrupeds have round solid hoofs. They fight by biting and kicking.



60. THE HORSE.



61. MARE AND COLT.

The Horse is a very useful quadruped. He is strong and swift. We can *travel* with horses much faster than we can *on foot*. Some horses are very handsome. Rich

men like to have fine horses. The horse is the most *noble* and *graceful* of all *beasts of burden*.¹

Many years ago there were no horses in America. They were brought from Europe. Now horses, cattle and sheep are *plentiful* in America.

The horse has a *flowing* mane, a *high arched* neck, two short ears, a long nose and wide *nostrils*. His tail is like a long brush, to drive away flies. His hoofs are round and solid.

When a horse is angry, he bites and kicks. It is dangerous to go near the heels of a strange horse. Boys and even men have been killed by the kick of a horse.

Horses eat grass, hay, oats and corn. They are fond of salt.

Sorrel horses have red manes and tails. *Bay* horses have black manes and tails. Some horses are brown, some gray, some quite black, some nearly or quite white. I have seen spotted horses, but they are not common. Many horses have white feet, or white noses.

Colts are not born blind like puppies and the young of wild beasts. They can walk after their mothers before they are a day old. We let them suck all summer, and commonly wean them in the fall.

The Tartars drink mare's milk.

When a colt is about three years old we *break* him; *that is*, we teach him to work. We put a bridle in his mouth, and a saddle on his back, and lead him about every day, for some days. Then we put a boy on his back and lead him about again. After some time, a man gets on him and rides him about. Sometimes the colt is

¹ *Beasts of burden*—The camel, lama, horse, ass, elephant, carry burdens. The ox does in some countries.

angry or frightened. He runs away with his *rider*, and tries to throw him. But the *rider* sits *firmly* and *guides* the colt with the bridle till he is tired of running and stops. After that, he will not often run away again.

Next we *break* the young horse *to the harness*. We *harness* him with a *gentle* old horse, and *hitch* them to an empty sled or wagon. After some days we hitch them to a loaded wagon. *It takes* several months to teach a horse to work well.

When a horse *has to* travel on a hard road, we fasten iron shoes on his feet. When he *has to* walk on ice, we make the *horse shoes* with sharp heels or toes. The horse is then *said to be rough shod*, or *sharp shod*.

Ladies often ride on a *side saddle*.

Horses call each other by *neighing*.

We do not eat the flesh of the horse. When a horse is old, he is *worth* nothing. Some people *treat* their horses *kindly as long as* they live; and then they sometimes live thirty years. Other people *treat* their horses *cruelly*, and do not give them enough to eat. When they are old, they either let them *starve*, or shoot them and sell their skins.



Look at that poor old horse. He cannot live many days. He has worked hard, and now, because he cannot

It takes (or requires) several years to teach the deaf and dumb to write well.

work, his master will not give him any thing to eat. Soon he will fall down and die, and then the dogs and crows will tear the flesh from his bones.

The Cow Kind.



62. Some Cows have no horns, but *most* cows have horns. We keep cows for their milk. Cow's milk is good food for children. Butter and cheese are made from milk.



63. OXEN are used to draw ploughs, harrows, sleds, carts and wagons. In some countries, people ride on oxen. We *seldom* harness an ox; he almost always draws *by* a yoke and chain. We almost always yoke two oxen together; but I have seen an ox with a collar, or with a short yoke and traces, sometimes drawing alone, and sometimes with a horse.

Farmers often put one or two horses before a yoke of oxen.

Oxen are *slower* than horses, but as strong, and more *steady*.

When the ox grows old, we fatten him and sell him to the butcher. His flesh is good beef, his *hide* makes thick strong leather, his tallow makes good candles, his horns make combs and powder-horns, his bones make buttons and *knife-handles*; glue is made from his feet, and his hair is put into *mortar* to *plaster* walls. *Thus* every part of the ox is useful. A young horse is *worth* more than an ox, but an old ox is *worth* a great deal more than an old horse.

A young ox is called a steer, and a young cow is called a heifer. A heifer commonly has a calf at three years old. We let the calf suck four weeks, and then sell it to the butcher. *Veal* is good food, and fine boots and shoes are made of calf-skin. When we *raise* calves, we take them from the cow, and give them milk in a pail.

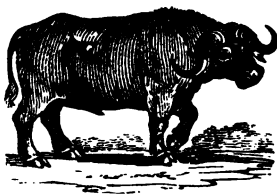
Cows sometimes live fourteen or fifteen years, but then they grow old and weak, and their flesh is *so tough that* you can hardly chew it. *It is best* to *fatten* them and kill them at eight or nine years old.



Bulls are sometimes very ugly and dangerous animals. Look at that poor man in the picture. He is running *with all his might*, (as fast as he can.) The bull is not far behind him, and if he *overtakes* him, will toss him in the air with his horns, and perhaps kill him. I hope the man will escape by climbing a tree, or jumping over a fence. A mad bull once chased a boy, *overtook* him near a high fence, and threw him over the fence. Thus the boy escaped and was not much hurt.

A bull or ox *bellows*, a cow *lows*, a calf *baas*.

A farmer sold his calf to the butcher. When the cow came home at night, and could not find her calf, she ran round the *lot* like a mad cow, and bellowed so loudly that people could hear her a mile. She was very *anxious* about her calf, but she forgot it in a few days.



64. THE BISON.

65. THE BUFFALO.

The bison and buffalo are large and strong animals of the cow kind. The *buffalo* is kept tame in some countries, and used to work like an ox. The *bison* is often called a *buffalo*. There are droves of thousands at the west. They run wild over the *prairies*. The Indians and many white hunters follow a drove of bisons, and kill as many as they want. Their flesh is good food. We use their skins to put on the *seats* of our sleighs, and to wrap round our feet to keep them warm.

The Sheep and Goat Kind.



66. GOAT AND KID.



67. EWE AND LAMB.

There are several kinds of *wild goats* and *wild sheep* in some countries; but in this country we have only tame

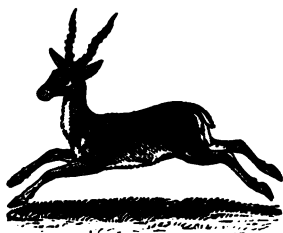
sheep and tame goats. Sheep are much more plentiful than goats here; but in some *mountainous* countries goats are more plentiful than sheep. People drink goat's milk, and make cheese of it.

Goats are more saucy, *petulant*, *fickle* and *lively* than sheep. They love to climb hills and rocks. They can easily jump over fences. Our goats have coarse hair, but in some countries the goats have fine long hair. People make cloth of it. Ladies' gloves are made of kid-skin.

We keep sheep *chiefly* for their wool. Our best and warmest cloth is made of wool. We wash and shear our sheep every year in June. The wool keeps the sheep warm in winter, but in summer they do not want it. A good sheep *yields* three or four pounds of good wool. A pound of good wool is *worth* from three to five shillings.

Ewes commonly have lambs in winter, or early in the spring. The lambs can run after their mother when they are only one day old. An old sheep will fly at a dog, and knock him down with her head if he comes near her lamb. Sometimes a sheep has *twins*.

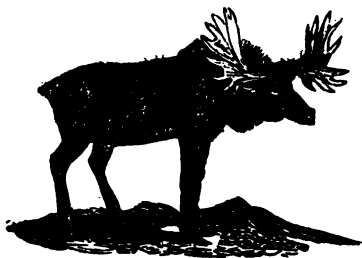
Mutton is good food. We generally eat it *fresh*. We do not *salt* it *down* for winter as often as we do beef and pork.



68. THE ANTELOPE is a very *nimb'e* and *graceful* animal. It is partly like a goat and partly like a deer. The Arabs *keep* tame antelopes in their houses.

The Deer Kind.

69. There are many kinds of DEER, and they are called by *various* names. The large red deer is called a *stag*, and his female a *hind*. A small deer is called a *buck*, and his female a *doe* or *roe*. A young deer is called a *fawn*.



70. THE ELK is the largest kind of deer. He is sometimes larger than the largest horse. His horns are shed annually, and are sometimes so great that they weigh sixty pounds. He has a short neck and long legs.

The *roe*buck is not as large as a sheep, but has longer legs.



71. THE REIN-DEER is kept tame in Lapland. That is a very cold country, and horses or oxen cannot live there, *as*¹ they have no hay, and not much grass. The rein-deer can take care of himself in winter. He digs in the snow with his foot,

1 *As* is sometimes used nearly in the sense of *because*.

and finds moss enough to eat. The Laplanders milk their *rein-deer* as we do cows. They eat their flesh, and make them draw sledges. A *rein-deer* will draw a sledge sixty miles in one day.

All kinds of deer are very *swift* and *nimble*. Wild deer are very *shy*. If they see a man, dog or wolf, they will jump and run. They can run faster than a horse.

The male deer has *branching* horns, but the female has no horns. The deer *sheds* his horns every spring, and new horns grow up before fall.

The flesh of the deer is called *venison*.

We make knife-handles of *buck-horn*, and coarse gloves are made of *buck-skin*. Formerly men wore *breeches* made of buck-skin.

Many years ago, long before our grandfathers were born, *the whole* of this country was covered with wood. It was a great *forest*. There were no towns, no churches, no bridges, no roads, no ships, no steam boats, no carriages, no fences, no houses, no barns, no horses, cattle or sheep; no white men or women, no white boys or girls; but there were deer and bears, and wolves, and many other wild beasts. The Indians lived in little huts, crossed the rivers in canoes, and shot their *game*¹ with bows and arrows. Then there were *plenty* of deer, but now the deer are *scarce*. If we wish to shoot deer, we must go far to the west or north.

1 Men hunt their *game*, but beasts hunt their *prey*.

The Hog Kind.

72. THE BOAR.



73. SOW AND PIGS.

The *hog* does not work for us like the ox. We do not ride him like the horse. We do not milk the *sow* as we do the cow. We do not *even* make leather from his hide; but *notwithstanding*, the hog is a very useful animal.

A poor man buys a little pig, and feeds it with butter-milk, *dish-water* and weeds, till fall. Then he gives it apples, boiled potatoes and corn. It grows large and fat, and fills the poor man's barrel with pork.

A farmer keeps several hogs. In November or December, when the hogs are very fat, and the weather begins to be cold, the farmer hires two or three strong men to help him kill his hogs. They come early in the morning, and *grind* and *whet* their knives. They put on old clothes, *to save dirtying* their new clothes. The farmer gets dry wood, builds a large fire, and *heats* some water in large kettles. When the water is hot enough, he *gives chase to*¹ the hogs, and catches one by the tail. Immediately the other men run to help him. The poor hog *squeals* and

¹ For *to begin to chase*, we often say *to give chase to*; So: *give battle to*.

struggles for his life,¹ but they seize his legs and throw him down. Two or three men hold him down, *while* the farmer *sticks* a sharp knife into his throat. They then let him get up, and the blood *gushes* in a *stream* from his throat. The poor hog grows *faint, staggers*, and soon falls down. Immediately the men lift him up on an old sled, and three or four men stand on the sled, and *dip* the hog several times, *tail-foremost*, into a barrel of hot water. They dip his *hind quarters* first, and then turn him round and dip his head and shoulders. When they find that his *bristles* will *come off* easily, they pull him out of the tub, and work as fast as they can to *scrape* off the bristles. When he is quite clean, they run a stick through the *sinews* of his hind feet, and hang him up on a rail. They cut his *belly* open, and take out his bowels, lungs, heart and *liver*. By this time the water is hot again. *So* they catch another hog.

The farmer's wife takes the bowels, and carefully *scrapes* off all the fat. This she washes clean and *melts down* to make *lard*. She gets more lard from the fat round the *kidneys*. She salts her lard, and keeps it in a pot or tub, to put in pies and cakes.

Part of the pork is eaten *fresh*, but the greater part is *salted* down. Fresh pork will soon spoil in warm weather, but may be kept some weeks in cold weather. Salt pork will keep good a long time. Sailors carry barrels of salt pork to eat at sea, when they can get no fresh meat.

Part of the pork is made into *sausages*.

The hams and shoulders are left in the *brine* with the *rest*² of the pork a few weeks, then they are taken out, and

¹ Struggle for life; run for life; "when a boat upssets, the men swim for their lives;" &c.

² "I have some apples. I will keep one, and give you the *rest*,"

smoked for *bacon*. Most people like good ham better than any other meat.

The bristles on the back of an old hog are used to make *clothes-brushes* and *shoe-brushes*. Shoe-makers also use bristles to point their *waxed-ends*.

Hogs will eat almost any thing. I have heard that a man let his pigs eat a dead horse. They grew fat, and he carried them to market and sold them. That was *mean*. I could not eat such pork.

Hogs sometimes catch chickens and little lambs and eat them.

An old sow often has ten or twelve pigs in one *litter*. If you catch a pig it will *squeal*, and immediately all the hogs will run to help it. If its mother comes *at* you, you will *have to* drop the pig and run.

Hogs are fond of *wallowing* in the mire in *warm weather*. Often they *root up* the ground with their *snouts*. The farmers *have to* put rings in their noses. Some *ring* their hogs and *yoke* them, and let them run about; others keep their hogs in pens.

Hogs are very *greedy* and *impolite* creatures. When a person behaves very *rudely* and *impolitely*, we call him a *hog*.

A wild hog is a very fierce and dangerous animal. I have read that a *wild boar* and a lion once fought till they killed each other.

Quadrupeds in General.

Quadrupeds of the cow, sheep and deer kinds, *chew the cud*. They are called *ruminant quadrupeds*. They never eat *animal food*.

Other quadrupeds, as the horse kind, the elephant, the

hare kind, and many others, *live on* vegetable food; but do not *chew the cud*.

The flesh of *ruminant* quadrupeds is better than that of any other quadrupeds. Most ruminant quadrupeds have two horns on the top of the head. Few other quadrupeds have horns.

The horse, ass and zebra have *round solid hoofs*. The cow, sheep, goat, deer, hog, and many other quadrupeds, have *cloven hoofs*. Monkeys and apes have *hands* like those of a man. Most other animals have *paws*, with toes and claws. Some have five toes on each foot; some four; some only three.

Some quadrupeds use their tails to drive away flies. Some kinds of monkeys can hang on the limb of a tree by their tails, and *so* can the opossum.

If you *pat* a dog on the head, he will *wag* his tail. When he is proud or angry, he *curls* his tail over his back. When he is frightened, or *ashamed*, he drops his tail between his legs.

Many animals are *gregarious*. They go *in companies*. They are unhappy when *alone*, and run round crying for their *companions*.

Some animals, as the tiger, the bear, and the hare, are *solitary*. They *prefer* to be *alone*. Many beasts of prey are *solitary*, but some are *gregarious*.

Wild horses and wild cattle go in large *herds*. If a *strange* horse comes among a herd of wild horses, they will all *fall upon* him, and bite and kick him to death.

A company of sheep, goats, or birds is called a *flock*. I have seen a thousand sheep in one flock.

Beasts of prey often sleep in *dens*, or holes and caves among rocks. It is very dangerous to enter the *den* of a lion, tiger or bear.

Section IV.—Birds.

All birds lay eggs. Almost all birds build nests, and sit on their eggs till they are hatched. Young birds cannot fly. Some young birds can run after their mother to look for food when only a day old. Other young birds stay in the nest till their wings are full *fledged*; the old birds bring food to them several times a day, and sit on the nest at night to keep the young ones warm. When the young birds can fly, the old ones drive them away to take care of themselves.

Very small birds sit only two weeks. The hen sits three weeks; the turkey, duck, and goose sit about four weeks. The *swan* sits six or seven weeks.

Birds of Prey.

1. THE EAGLE is called the *king of birds*. He is not *indeed* the largest of birds, for the *ostrich* is larger, but he is the most courageous and dangerous. If you go near an eagle's nest, and try to take away their young ones, both the old eagles will *fly at* you, and perhaps kill you with their strong wings, sharp claws, and hooked *beaks*.

The female eagle is larger and stronger than the male. The male and female live in *pairs*, and are faithful to each other. They build their nest on the top of a high mountain, or among high steep rocks. It is very hard to climb up to an eagle's nest. The old eagles sit on the top of the mountain, and see far over the country. When they are hungry, or want food for their young ones, they *soar* high in the air, and when they see any small animal, dart down

on it, and carry it to their nest. The nest is always full of meat and bones. A large eagle can seize a hare or a lamb, and carry it high *in the air*.

Many years ago in *Scotland*, an eagle seized a small child and flew with it to her nest on the top of a high mountain. The *distracted* parents of the child followed the eagle. They climbed up the rocks as fast as they could, and found the child alive in the nest. They carried it home *with great joy*, and felt very *grateful* to God for saving their child.



2. THE VULTURE is nearly as large as the eagle. He is very fond of *carrion*, and will sometimes *scratch open* graves, and devour dead bodies, like the *hyena*. The *turkey-buzzard* is like the vulture, but smaller.



3. THE HAWK.



4. THE FALCON.

The *Hawk*, the *Kite*, and the *Falcon* are much smaller than the eagle, but have sharp claws and hooked beaks like him. They pursue small birds, seize them, tear them in pieces, and devour them.

A *Kite* will fly slowly over a house, and suddenly dart

down and seize a chicken in his claws. The *poultry* all scream and run under the fences, or into the barn. The hawk flies off to some *snug* place with his prey, pulls it to pieces, eats as much as he wants, and goes to sleep till he is hungry again. Then he flies away to look for another chicken.

Rich people *formerly* kept tame *falcons* to catch herons, partridges and other birds.

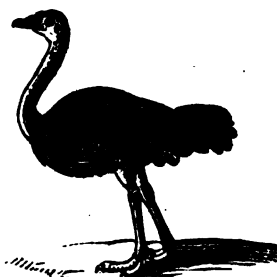


5. There are several kinds of OWLS. Some are as large as hens, and some even as large as turkeys; but these are not common. The common owl is about as large as a pigeon.

Owls cannot see well by day. Like cats they can see best in the night. They hide themselves all day, and at night fly about to look for food. They often go into a barn and catch mice. Large owls often catch hens. Owls make a very unpleasant noise, called *hooting*.



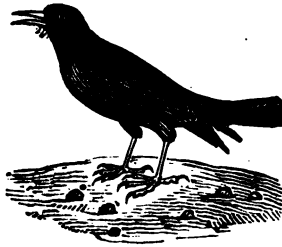
7. THE CASSOWARY.



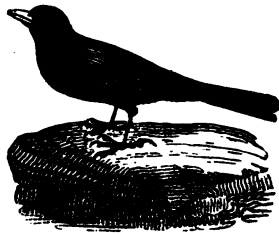
6. THE OSTRICH.

These are very large birds. The *ostrich* is seven or

eight feet high, and can carry a boy on his back. He can run faster than a horse ; but his wings are so short that he cannot fly. He lives in Africa. Ladies sometimes wear *ostrich-feathers* in their hats.



8. THE CROW.



9. THE BLACK BIRD.

These birds are *both* very black, and *look* much alike; but the crow is much larger than the black-bird. We often eat black-birds, but we never eat crows, because they are so fond of carrion.

Crows *do* much *mischief*¹ in the spring, by pulling up the young corn. The farmers try to *frighten* them away with guns, *scare-crows*, old barrels, and nets ; but the *best way* is to put tar on the corn before you plant it.

In the summer, the black-birds live in pairs and take care of their young ones ; but in fall and spring they assemble in very large flocks, and men and boys shoot many of them. I have seen a man shoot fifteen or twenty at one shot.

The *Raven* is much like the crow, but larger. He sometimes lives a hundred years. He is very *cunning*, and may be taught to speak like a *parrot*.

¹ Do mischief; get in mischief; make mischief; fond of mischief—mischievous; love mischief; keep (yourself) out of mischief; keep (another) out of mischief; often in mischief; always at some mischief.



10. PARROTS live wild in the woods in warm countries. They are tamed and taught to speak a few words. You have seen parrots kept in cages.



11. THE BLUE JAY.



12. THE ROBIN.



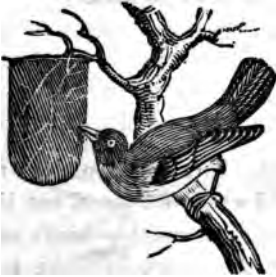
13. THE SNOW-BIRD.



14. THE LARK.

These are small birds. You will often see them flying about the woods and fields. They generally stay with us

all winter. When the ground is covered with snow, they come round the house and barn to look for corn and seeds, in the hay and chaff. Cruel boys often shoot them. In winter you will often see the little snow birds in flocks hopping about on the snow. They are *hardy*, and do not *care for* the cold.



15. THE HANGING BIRD.



16. THE WOODPECKER.



17. THE WREN.



18. THE GROSBEEK.

These also are small birds. Some of them sing *sweetly*. They stay with us all summer, and *bring up* their young. In the fall they fly far to the south, and *spend* the winter there.



19. **THE HUMMING-BIRD** is the smallest of all birds. It lays eggs no bigger than peas. It is a pretty bird. You may see them in summer flying round flowers, and sucking honey like bees.



20. **THE CUCKOO** does not build a nest for itself, but lays its eggs in another bird's nest, and the young cuckoo soon tumbles the other young birds out of the nest, and kills them.



21. **THE SWALLOW** flies swiftly. In summer you will often see the swallows flying round and round from morning to night. They *hardly ever* stop to rest before dark. They do not fly about *in play*, but to catch flies and other insects. They all leave us in the fall, but come back as soon as the weather is warm again.



22. THE WHIPPOORWILL has a very wide mouth. It *commonly* sits still all day, and at night it flies about and sits on the ground near some house. Here it begins to cry *whip poor will*. After a while it flies to another place, and cries *whip poor will* again. We never see or hear them in winter. They do not build a nest, but lay their eggs on the ground, among bushes and dry leaves.



23. THE TOUCAN is a curious bird. Its bill is about as large as its body. It is found in South America.



24. DOVES are very affectionate and faithful to each other. They live in pairs, and if one dies, the other will *pine* to death.



25. Many people keep tame PIGEONS. They sleep and make their nests in little boxes in the top of a barn or other out house. They often fly far from home, and steal wheat, and other grain, but always come home at night. Pigeons are sometimes used to carry letters.

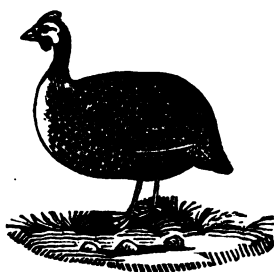
Young pigeons are *always almost* naked,¹ and very homely. The old ones bring food and put it in their mouths.

Wild pigeons fly in very large flocks. The woods are sometimes covered with them. In the spring they come from the south, and in the fall they go back again. They are good food. We often see them in the spring and fall, but in summer they assemble in great flocks in the woods at the west and north. The trees are covered with their nests. People come many miles to shoot them.

The Poultry Kind.



26. THE HEN.



27. THE GUINEA HEN.

¹ The teacher will explain the difference between *always almost* and *almost always*. In the former phrase, *almost* qualifies the following adjective. In the latter *almost always* means not strictly always, but nearly so



28. THE TURKEY.



29. THE PEACOCK.

All these birds have strong legs and short wings. They generally run on the ground to look for grain and insects, but often they fly into trees to eat berries and small *fruit*. They do not fly far, but often fly from one field to another.

In the woods of the west the *wild turkeys* go in large flocks. The *cock-turkey*, (or *gobbler*,) is a *vain, pompous* bird. He often spreads out his fine tail and *gobbles*, and *struts* about, looking as big as a king. But a cock, though not half as large, is much more courageous than a gobbler; and will often make him pull down his tail and run away.

The tail of the peacock is very beautiful, but his flesh is poor, and he is a troublesome, mischievous *fellow*.



30. THE GROUSE.



31. THE PHEASANT.

These are wild birds of the poultry kind. They are common in England. The *pheasant* is almost as beautiful as the *peacock*.



32. The QUAIL is a small handsome bird, about as big as a pigeon. It is fond of wheat. Quails run on the ground in flocks of fifteen or twenty. If you go near them, they rise up altogether and fly to another place. Hunters often shoot them as they rise to fly. Their flesh is very fine and delicate. Quails never perch on trees. The female quail makes her nest on the ground and lays eight or ten eggs. The young quails, as soon as they get out of the shell, run after their mother to look for grain and insects.



33. The PARTRIDGE is four times as large as the quail; it is nearly as large as a hen. Partridges do not go in flocks, but an old partridge often has ten or twelve young ones running after her. If you go near them, the young ones will hide themselves in the long grass or among bushes; and the old partridge will pretend to be lame. She will limp and flutter along; and boys and dogs often think they can catch her, and run after her for some time. But as soon as she gets them far enough from her young ones, she will rise up, and fly away like an arrow. She then returns to her young ones, and calls them together again. When the wings of the young ones are *fledged*, and they

can fly well, their mother leaves them, and does not *care about* them afterward.

Partridges often perch on trees early in the morning, and early in the evening, to pick berries or buds. Boys often look for a bush covered with sweet berries, and hide themselves near it, and when the poor partridge flies into the bush to pick berries, they *fire* and kill it.

Water Fowl.

There are two kinds of *Water Fowl*. Some have long legs to wade in shallow water. Others have webbed feet to swim with.

The web-footed birds have mostly short legs. Some of them cannot fly; others can fly very well. They have such thick, close, *oily* feathers, that¹ water cannot *penetrate* them.



34. THE GOOSE AND
GOSLINGS.



35. THE DUCK AND
DUCKLINGS.

The Goose and *Duck* look much alike. Both have broad bills, long necks, short legs and webbed feet. But the goose is three or four times as large as the duck.

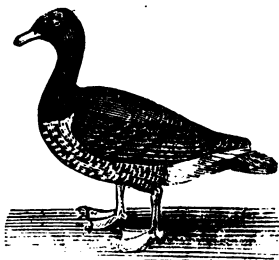
Geese take good care of their young ones. When the

¹ The teacher will explain the cases in which *so that* is changed to *such that*. *Such* goes before a noun, and *so* before an adjective or adverb. "My leg is *so lame that* I cannot walk." "I have *such a lame leg that* I cannot walk."

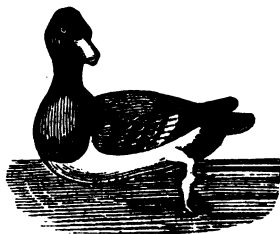
young goslings are about a day old, the old geese lead them to the nearest brook or pond, where the goslings swim about, and *seem* to be happy on the water. They eat grass and insects. If you try to catch one of the goslings, the old geese will fly at you, beat you with their wings, and bite you with their bills. Geese must be kept out of the garden; they will eat up the beans, cabbages, corn, and other vegetables.

We use the quills of geese to make pens. Their feathers are put into beds. Most people prefer to sleep on *geese-feathers*, and in Germany, every body sleeps between two feather beds, summer and winter. But this is wrong. It will make people weak and sickly. The Doctors say that *hair-mattresses*, or *straw beds*, or beds filled with *corn-husks* are better than *feather beds*.

The duck *seldom* sits on her eggs. She drops them almost *any where*. The goose always makes a nest, and covers her eggs carefully with straw and feathers; but the tame duck takes very little care of her eggs, or of her young ones. We commonly put the eggs of a duck under a hen. The hen takes good care of the young ducks. The male duck is called a *drake*. He often has black and *purple* feathers on his head and neck. Some ducks have *tufts* of feathers on the top of the head.



36. THE WILD GOOSE.



37. THE WILD DUCK.

The wild goose is much like the tame goose. In the spring we see wild geese and ducks flying over our heads *in long lines*. Sometimes they stop to rest and eat on some pond or river, and then we shoot as many as we can. They fly far to the north. There they spend the summer on the banks of rivers and lakes, far from any house. They lay eggs, and in a few weeks, lead their young ones about to look for food. Now they *moult*. Their feathers drop out, and new ones grow. When they are *moulting*, they cannot fly. The Indians chase them *on foot*, and easily *run* them *down*. In the fall, when the feathers of the old birds are grown again, and the young ones have full-grown wings, they assemble in flocks, and fly back to the south to *spend* the winter.

There are many kinds of wild ducks, and some are very pretty.



38. THE SWAN is much larger than the goose. She is quite white, and swims very gracefully. The swan sometimes lives more than a hundred years. A swan is so strong that she can knock down a large boy with her wings, if he comes too near her young ones.

I heard that a fox was swimming across a river towards the nest of a swan, but the swan flew at him, and beat him with her wings, and kept him under water so long that she drowned him.



39. THE PELICAN is larger than a goose. That *pouch* under her bill will *hold*¹ half a bushel. She is skilful in catching fish, and when she has filled her pouch, she carries her fish to her nest, and feeds her young ones. Some people say that the pelican often builds her nest in a very dry desert. She has to bring

water in her pouch *a great way* to her nest. She fills her nest with the water and lets her young ones swim in it. It is said that the lion, tiger and leopard come to the nest and drink part of the water, but never hurt the young birds.



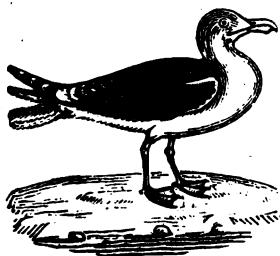
40. THE PENGUIN is a very curious bird. Its legs are so short that it cannot walk fast, and its wings are so small that it cannot fly at all, but it is a very good *swimmer* and *diver*. It swims in the sea and lives on fish. It builds its nest on the

low shores of desert islands. The sailors sometimes kill and eat them, but they are poor food. When the penguin is on shore, it stands upright like a man, and its wings look like two arms.

1 This basket holds a bushel. That cup holds a pint. 2. A bag will not hold water. A basket will not hold flour. 3. Hold it fast, &c. 4. Hold up your hand; hold up your head, &c. Preterite *held*. "Two boys found a boat so small that it would *hold* only one person. They both got in it, and sunk it."

The *Puffin* has short legs like the penguin, but it has good wings, and can fly well. It digs a deep hole with its claws and bill, and makes its nest at the bottom of the hole.

Some other kinds of *sea-fowl* make their nests in holes and caves in high rocks along the *sea shore*.



41. THE GULL is a slow, stupid bird. When we cross the North River, or the Bay of New-York, we often see gulls flying slowly over the water, and looking for small fish. *At a distance, they look a little like pigeons.*



42. THE PETREL is a small lively bird. While the wind is blowing hard, and the waves are running high, the sailors often see petrels swimming in the sea far from land.

Long-legged Birds.



43. THE FLAMINGO.



44. THE CRANE.

The *Flamingo* is a tall red bird. *At a distance* it looks like a soldier with a red coat on.

There are many kinds of *Cranes*. The *heron* and the *stork* look much like the crane. All these birds have long legs, long necks, and strong wings. They can fly high in the air, and often fly from one country to another. They wade in shallow water, and catch fish with their claws and bills. The crane is as big as a goose, the heron smaller.



45. THE SNIPE.



46. THE WOOD-COCK.

The *Snipe* and *Wood-cock* look much alike. They are small birds. They live in wet places, and eat worms and insects. Their flesh is very *delicate* food.



47. THE PLOVER is a small long-legged bird. It runs swiftly, and feeds in wet places. It makes its nest on the ground, like the snipe. It does not *take pains*¹ to make a nice warm nest, but only scratches a little *hollow* among dry leaves

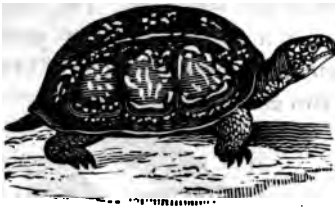
and bushes.

¹ *Take pains*; i. e. *work hard*, or *work carefully*. *Take care*, i. e. *be careful*.



48. The feathers of **THE KING-FISHER** are beautifully *colored*, but its shape is not elegant. Its legs are short and its bill long. It is about as large as a pigeon. It *floats* like a paper kite over the water, and when it sees a fish, darts down and seizes it. It digs a deep hole near some pond or river, and makes a comfortable nest at the bottom of the hole. It takes pains to line its nest with *down*, and make it soft.

Section V.—Reptiles and Serpents.



1. **THE LAND TORTOISE** crawls about the woods and fields. If you go near one, or touch it, it will *draw in* its head, legs and tail, and shut its shell up *tight*. But if you put coals on its back, it will put out its neck and feet and crawl away as fast as it can. It crawls very slowly, but it can travel two or three miles in a day. It buries its eggs in the ground, and leaves them. The eggs hatch by the *warmth* of the sun, and the young turtles scratch *their way* out of the hole, and crawl about to look for food. The old turtles never take care of them.

The eggs of reptiles and serpents have no shells, but are covered with a thick *tough* skin.

The tortoise digs a hole in the sand and buries itself in

the fall. Here it sleeps all winter. In spring it awakes and crawls out again.

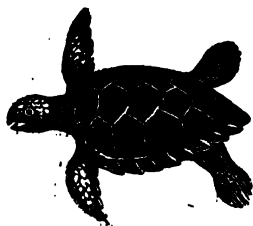
All reptiles and serpents in cold countries also hide themselves under ground in fall and sleep till spring. The frog hides in the mud at the bottom of a pond or spring, and lies *torpid* all winter.



2. THE TERRAPIN, the *snap-turtle*, and the speckled *water-turtle* live in swamps, ponds and rivers, but often come on shore. You may often see the speckled turtle lying on a

stone or log. If you go near it, or throw a stone at it, it immediately *tumbles* into the water, and dives to the bottom. Water-turtles cannot shut their shells close.

Many people eat snap turtles and terrapina. The snap turtle eats fish and frogs. If it catches hold of your finger, it will hold on till you cut its head off. It will live and crawl about a week or two after its head is off.



3. THE GREEN TURTLE.

4. THE LEATHERY TORTOISE.

The *Green turtle* and *Leathery tortoise* live in the sea. They are sometimes as big as a cow. They cannot walk well, but can swim fast. They crawl on shore to lay their eggs in the sand, and men watch for them, and turn them

on their backs. They cannot turn over again, and so they have to lie there till the men come after them. I heard that a man caught a very large turtle and tried to turn it over, but the tortoise was so strong and heavy that he carried the man into the sea, the man having got his arm fast under one of the fore-legs of the tortoise.

The flesh of the green turtle is a great *luxury*. Rich men will pay much money for these turtles.

Ladies' back and side combs are made of *tortoise-shell*.



5. THE FROG can swim better than any other reptile. A young frog is called a *tad pole*. It has a tail and no legs, and swims about like a fish. When it grows older, its arms and

legs grow out, and its tail falls off. It now becomes a frog, and often goes on shore. If a pond dries up, the frogs will travel several miles by night to look for another pond.

A pond in Connecticut was *dried up*, and the frogs *set out* to look for water. They traveled by thousands through a certain town. It was night, and the frogs made a great noise. The people were dreadfully frightened, and thought the Indians were coming to murder them. Some of them left their beds and ran for their lives. When they found their *mistake*, they laughed at each other.

In some countries people eat frogs.

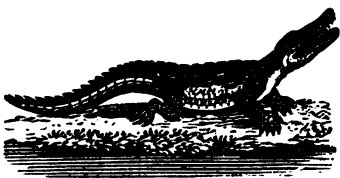


6. TOADS look like frogs, but do not love water. They hop or crawl about on dry ground, or on trees, and eat insects.



7. THE LIZARD has four legs and a tail. It is a small harmless animal. Some are found under stones; some in brooks; and sometimes we find them in a well. In South

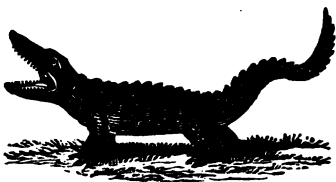
America the Indians eat large lizards.



8. CROCODILES are very large and strong animals. They are very terrible and dangerous. They are sometimes fifteen or twenty or even thirty feet long. They are covered with scales as

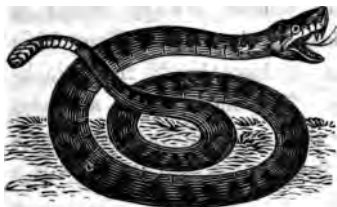
hard as a rock. You can hardly kill one with a gun. They strike dreadful *blows*¹ with their tails, and with their strong sharp teeth they can bite a man *in two*.

The *Crocodile* is found in the rivers of Asia and Africa, far to the east, beyond the great sea. They lay many eggs, and, like the tortoise, bury them in the sand. Vultures often dig up their eggs and devour them.



9. THE ALLIGATOR lives in the large swamps and rivers of America. There are many at the south, but fortunately they cannot live in cold winters, and so there are none here.

¹ Strike a light blow; strike a heavy blow. Give a blow; receive a blow. Killed by a blow on the head. A blow from (or with) a stone,—from a club. "A man once killed another man by one blow of his fist."



10. Some snakes are very *poisonous*, as the *adder*, *viper*, and *rattle-snake*. THE RATTLESNAKE is a very dangerous animal. It is sometimes eight or nine feet long, and as thick as a man's leg. If it bites a man, he soon grows sick and faint, swells up, and dies in a few hours. Sometimes the bite of the rattlesnake may be cured by strong *medicines*. But I have heard that a doctor kept several tame rattlesnakes in a room of his house, and boasted that he could cure their bite. One day a large snake bit him in the hand, and he died in a few hours.

The rattlesnake has two large hollow teeth, called *fangs*. At the roots of these teeth is a small bag of poison. When he bites, a drop of the *poison* is *squeezed* through the hollow tooth into the *wound*.

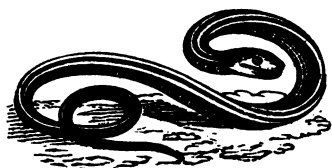
The rattlesnake has several loose bones at the end of his tail. When you go near one, he shakes his tail, and makes a noise to tell you to take care. He is called a *rattlesnake* because he carries a *rattle*. He has as many *rattles* on his tail as he is years old. A new one grows every year.

There are other kinds of poisonous snakes, but fortunately there are not many in this State. We always kill them when we see them, and now there are but few left.



11. THE BLACK SNAKE is not poisonous, but it will sometimes throw a man down by twisting round his legs, bite him,

and run off. But they are almost always afraid of men, and will run away as fast as they can. They hide in bushes and under stones. I have heard that black-snakes sometimes suck cows. The black snake, and also many other snakes, *cast* their skin every spring, and get a new skin. Snakes swallow frogs, mice, and small birds.



12. THE GARTER SNAKE is a small *harmless* snake. Its skin is striped. It is no thicker than a man's finger.

Besides these, there are water snakes. They swim in rivers, and catch fish. I once saw a water snake swimming with a large *cat fish* in its mouth. A man saw it, and put a pole under it, and *jerked* the snake and fish on shore together. He killed the snake, and ate the fish himself.



13. THE GREAT BOA.

In hot countries, there are several kinds of large snakes.

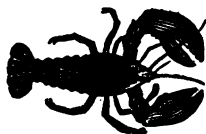
Some of them can swallow a man whole, and one of the largest can swallow an ox. These snakes are not poisonous. They *lie in wait* among trees and bushes, and *dart* suddenly on their prey. They twist round it and squeeze it so tight that they break all its bones. They then swallow it whole, and lie inactive for some time till they are hungry again. When they are hungry, it is very dangerous to go near them, but when they are *gorged*, they cannot either fight or run, and a child can kill them.

The *Boa* is the largest of these serpents. Some are found in Ceylon, and some in South America. I have heard that a *boa* has sometimes killed and swallowed an ox, and even a tiger.

Shell Animals.



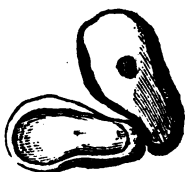
14. THE CRAB.



15. THE LOBSTER.

These curious animals have large claws like pincers. They live in the sea, and in rivers. They are good food. Their shells turn red when boiled. They *cast* their shells every year. If you cut off a lobster's claw, a new claw will grow up.

Have you seen little lobsters in brooks? When you try to catch them they *dart backward* through the water. Crabs crawl *sideways*.



16. THE OYSTER.



17. THE CLAM.

Oysters and *Clams* have very hard shells. They have no feet, no eyes, no bones, no red blood. Oysters often grow fast to a rock. They can open and shut their shells, but cannot move from *one place to another*.

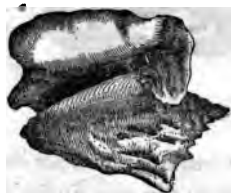
The *Clam* is found in *salt water*. There are several kinds of *Muscles*. Some of them live in *fresh water*. Clams and muscles can move slowly. The muscle *thrusts* out a long tongue and *makes* a little furrow in the mud. In this furrow it moves slowly backward and forward.

Pearls are sometimes found in oysters and muscles in warm countries.

In warm countries there are oysters so large that a man cannot lift one.



18. THE SNAIL.



19. THE CONCH.

You have seen a *snail*? If you touch it, it will draw in its horns, and hide in its shell.

The shell of the *conch* is *somewhat* like that of the snail, but much larger. Some kinds of conch shells are used to call people at a distance. When the dinner is ready, the

farmer's wife blows a conch shell to call her husband from the field. He can hear it half a mile or more.

There are many other kinds of shells. Some are large and some small. Some of these shells are very beautiful. Some people are fond of *collecting* and *arranging* shells.

Section VI.—Fishes.

The Whale Kind.



1. THE WHALE is the greatest of living creatures. A large whale is as large as a steam boat.

Whales bring forth their young alive and suckle them. The old whale is very careful of her young one. She will *defend* it as a cow does her calf.

Whales breathe as we do. They cannot live long under water. They swim on the *surface*.¹ They often dive down, but soon come up again to breathe. Whales are very fat. Like hogs they have a great deal of fat under the skin. Lamp oil is made of this fat.

Many men go to sea in ships to kill whales. When

¹ "The *surface* of that table is red, but if you scratch it with a knife, you will find that the wood is nearly white." "Men and boys swim with their heads above the *surface*. Fish swim below the *surface*."

they see a whale, five or six men take a boat, and *row* from the ship to the whale. They row carefully and *silently* till they get very near the great creature, then a strong, *skillful* man stands up in the boat, and darts a *harpoon* into the whale's side. The whale dives deep into the sea, but the harpoon has a very long rope tied to it. The men let the rope run out of the boat, and in a few minutes the whale comes up to breathe. He then swims away and draws the boat after him several miles, as fast as a horse can run. But he soon grows tired and faint. The sea is red with his blood. He strikes the water with his tail, and throws the spray as high as a house. At last he turns over on his back and dies. The sailors then come up, and *tow* the great body to the ship. They cut off the fat, and *try out* the oil in large kettles. They cut out his tongue to make oil, and his teeth for *whale bone*. Then they let the *skeleton* sink to the bottom of the deep sea, and *sail* away to look for another whale.

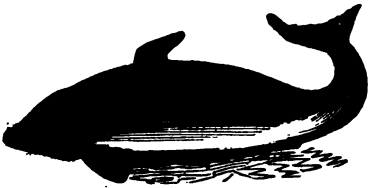
One whale often *yields* a hundred barrels of oil, *worth* two or three thousand dollars.

Sometimes the whale will *attack* the boats. He can *destroy* a boat with one blow of his tail, and then the men are often drowned. A large whale once ran against a ship, broke in the side of the ship, and sunk it. The sailors were left in a little boat, a thousand miles from land. They had but very little food. They made a little sail for their boat with their shirts and jackets, and *steered* towards the nearest land. The men suffered dreadfully for want of food and water. After many days they reached an island, and staid there till another ship came and took them away.



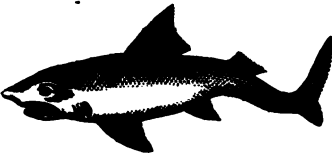
2. THE DOLPHIN is a fish of the whale kind, but much smaller than the whale. It swims swiftly, and feeds on small fish. When it

dies it changes into many beautiful colors.



3. We sometimes see PORPOISES in the Bay of New York. They roll and tumble about in the water. They are larger than large hogs,

and have *snouts* somewhat like a hog's snout. They *pursue* small fish, and swallow them whole.



4. The SHARK is not a fish of the whale kind. The female does not suckle her young, and they do not breathe as we do.

The shark is the most terrible and dangerous of all fish. Sharks are sometimes twenty or thirty feet long, and can swallow a man whole. When men and boys swim in the sea, they must be very careful not to go into the water if there is a shark in sight. Some men have been killed and eaten by sharks; others have had an arm or a leg bitten off. The shark swims very fast, and is as dangerous in the sea as the tiger is on land.

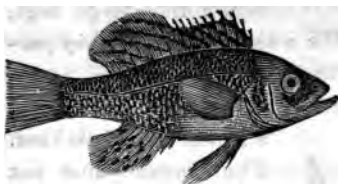
An officer of the U. S. sloop-of-war, Falmouth, *states* that "one of the *crew*, an old man, who was unwell, fell *overboard* during the night unobserved by any one, and

was not missed until the morning. About a week afterward, a shark was caught on board the *Saratoga*, and on opening him, the head of the old man was found."

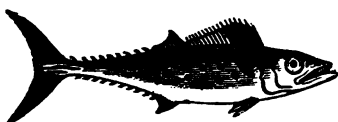
Smaller Sea Fish.



5. THE SHAD.



6. THE SEA BASS.



These fish are good food. There are many kinds of sea fish, and they vary greatly in *size* and *shape*.¹ In the spring, these fish and many others, come into our rivers to *spawn*. The fishermen catch many of them with hooks and lines and with nets. Part are sold *fresh*² in the market; part are *salted*, or *dried* to keep for winter, or to carry to other places.

7. THE MACKEREL is a very beautiful fish. It has various colors of white, blue and green. They are caught with hooks, salted, put up in barrels and brought to *market*. We

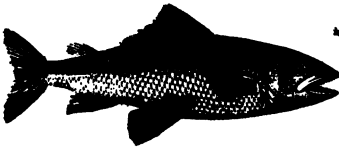
often have mackerel for breakfast.

¹ Vary in size; vary in shape; vary in color. Of the same size; of the same shape; of the same color. Of large size; of small size. Of elegant or graceful shape.

² Fresh water; fresh fish fresh meat; fresh butter; fresh air.



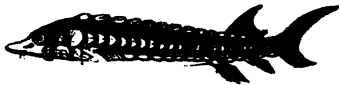
8. COD-FISH inhabit the Northern Seas. They are caught with a hook and line, in great *quantities* on the sand-banks of Newfoundland, and along the shores of New England. They are salted, dried in the sun and put up in bundles. Many seamen are *employed* in Cod-fisheries. Some people have a dinner of Cod-fish and potatoes on Friday.



9. THE SALMON is a very excellent fish. It lives both in fresh and salt water, but only in cold climates. It goes up rivers to deposit its spawn, and ascends *cataracts* and often leaps *mill-dams*.

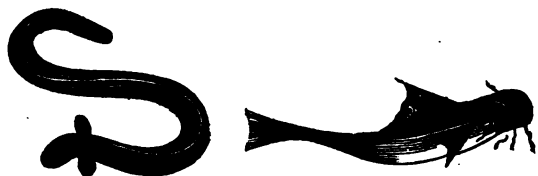


10. HERRINGS are small fish. They breed in great numbers in the Northern Seas, and when they return, they are followed by large fish and flocks of sea-fowl, which devour many of them. They are caught in nets, salted, *smoked* and *packed* in boxes for sale.



11. THE STURGEON is as large as a man, and sometimes much larger. It has five rows of bony *tubercles* running from head to tail. One of these rows is on the back, one on each side, and two on the edge of the belly. It is *sometimes caught* in the North River.

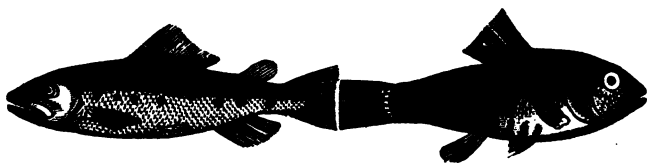
Many men live by catching fish. They go every day, and sometimes every night, with boats, hooks and lines, nets, &c. They sell their fish in the market, and get money to buy *provisions* and clothes for their families. Fishermen sometimes get drowned in *stormy* weather.¹



12. THE EEL. 13. THE CAT-FISH.

The *Eel* creeps in the mud like a snake, and swims like a fish. The *Cat-fish* has a wide mouth, and swallows small fish. He has sharp thorns on his head and back.

The eel and cat-fish have no scales. They are found in ponds and rivers.



14. THE TROUT. 15. THE PERCH.

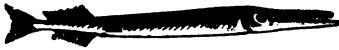
The *Trout* is a small fish. It lives in brooks, and eats worms and flies.

The *Perch* is found in *lakes* and rivers.

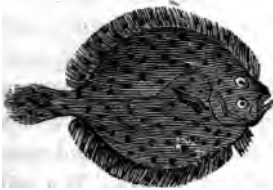
There are many other kinds of small fish in brooks, ponds, rivers and lakes.

¹ Stormy weather; windy weather; fair and pleasant weather; cold weather; warm weather; wet weather; dry weather.

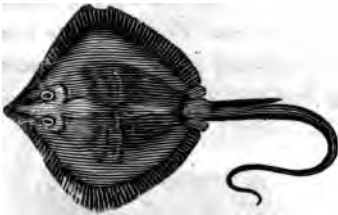
Some fish stay in deep water all winter. In spring they swim up the rivers and brooks to *spawn*, and then the fishermen catch many of them.



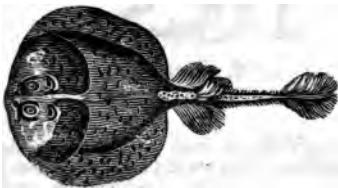
16. The body of the **PIKE** is long and slender; his teeth are sharp. He lives in rivers and ponds, and devours small fish. He has been called the *Wolf* of fishes.



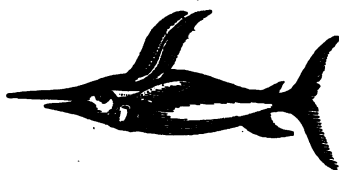
17. THE **PLAICE** and **FLOUNDER** are flat, thin fish. They live in salt water. You can see them in the market.



18. THE **STING-RAY** has a long sharp thorn on its tail. If you catch one, it will sting your hand. The wound is very painful.



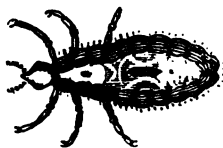
19. THE **TORPEDO** is a very curious fish. It has a smooth skin, brown on the back, and white underneath. If you touch it, it will give you a *shock*, like an electrical machine, and *benumb* your arm.



20. THE SWORD-FISH has a very hard sharp bone like a sword, at the end of the nose. The *sword fish* is so strong that it can *drive*¹ this sword through the planks and timbers of a ship. It often attacks the whale and sometimes kills him.

Section VII.—Insects.

INSECTS are smaller than other animals. They have no bones, or red blood. Most of them have six or eight legs, and some have more. Some insects have wings, and some have none. There are many kinds of insects. We will look at a *few* of them. Some of them are useful, some are troublesome, some are dangerous. Some insects are very beautiful, and some very ugly and *unpleasing*. Insects lay many eggs, and *multiply* fast.



1. THE LOUSE.



2. THE FLEA.

¹ *Drive* is here used in a sense different from what it has in the phrases, *drive a horse*, &c. Examples: Drive a nail (with a hammer,) &c. "A *tavern-keeper* killed a *traveler* by driving a nail into his scull while he was asleep." "When Christ was *crucified*, nails were *driven* through his hands and feet."



3. THE BED BUG.



4. THE SPIDER.

These are insects without wings. The louse and flea are very troublesome to dirty and lazy people. Bed bugs hide in our bedsteads and in cracks in the wall, and at night, while we are asleep, they crawl on us and suck our blood.

The spider spins fine threads, and makes webs to catch flies. I have seen a spider catch large grasshoppers, and twist threads round their legs and wings. The poor grasshoppers struggled *in vain*. They were tied fast, and the spider ate them when he pleased. I have heard that a spider once tied a small snake up to a beam in a cellar, and so kept it till it died.



5. THE SCORPION is a very large and dangerous insect. Its *sting* is sometimes *mortal*,¹ but *fortunately* there are no scorpions in this country.



6. Some ANTS have wings, but most ants have no wings. They crawl about on the ground, along fences, and up trees. They eat apples, plums, and other fruit. They often eat dead insects. There are many kinds of ants.

Small ants sometimes get into our houses, and crawl in

¹ Mortal wound; mortal poison, &c.

swarms over our bread and cheese. They even get into the sugar dish. Other small ants live in holes in rotten trees and stumps, or under stones.

Large ants build little hills as high as your knee. If you disturb their hills, they will crawl on your legs and bite you.

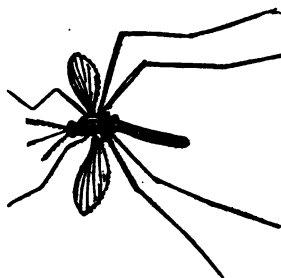
In winter the ants become *torpid* and sleep till spring.

In Africa there are large white ants. They build hills as high as a man's head, which it is dangerous to approach. They sometimes destroy the Great Boa.

Winged Insects.

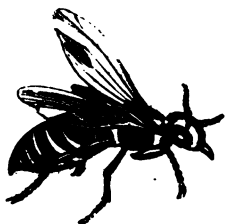


7. THE FLY.



8. THE MUSKETOE.

These are troublesome insects. In warm weather they fly about in swarms, and bite us *cruelly*. They also attack our horses and cattle, and suck their blood. There are many kinds of flies. In cold weather they all die, or become *torpid*



9. THE HORNET is a large strong fly with a sting in his tail. Hornets build nests as big as a man's head, and often bigger. They hang these nests to a small limb of a tree. The nests are round like a ball, and have a small hole on the under side to

go in and out. If you disturb a hornet's nest, the hornets will fly at you, and you must run as fast as you can, or you will be stung in a hundred places.

There are many kinds of *Wasps*. Wasps are very cross, *testy* animals. If a wasp gets into your sleeve, and you squeeze it, it will sting you. *Red wasps* build their nests under flat stones, or in old houses. *Blue wasps* build nests of clay or mud.



10. THE BEE is a very useful insect. Farmers keep bees in hives. Bees gather honey from flowers in summer, to eat in winter. Some people kill the bees in the fall to get their honey. Others take part of the honey, and leave part for the bees.

Bees will sting you if you disturb them; but if you let them alone, they will let you alone.



Bees swarm in May or June. The young bees leave the hive, and fly *abroad* to look for a hive of their own. When the farmer sees them swarming, he runs and beats

an iron pan. The bees *light* on a tree or bush near the old hive, and wait an hour or two for a new hive. If the farmer does not bring it, they will fly away into the woods and *settle* in a hollow tree.

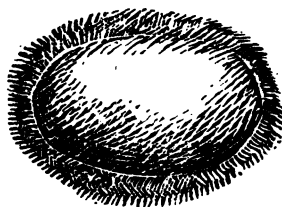
The farmer rubs a new clean hive with sweet smelling herbs and salt. He spreads a sheet under the tree. He puts up a ladder and goes up and carefully *saws* off the limb with all the bees on it. He shakes the bees off upon the sheet, and puts the hive over them. The bees climb up into the hive, and soon begin to build honey combs. There are from ten to twenty thousand bees in a swarm; and often more.

The Moth and Butterfly Kind.



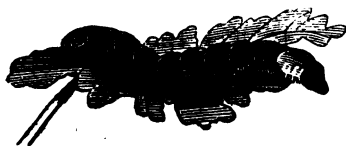
11. THE SILK WORM.

12. THE SILK WORM MOTH.



13. THE COCOON.

The Silk Worm spins silk. It feeds on mulberry leaves. The worm grows nearly as large as a man's finger, then it spins a *Cocoon* and wraps itself up. In a few weeks it *changes* to a *Moth*. The moth lays eggs and dies. We unwind the silk from the cocoon, spin it, and make the finest and dearest *stuffs* of it. We are proud of new, fine clothes ; but the sheep and silk worm wore them long ago.



14. There are many kinds of CATERPILLARS. Some are green, some white, some yellow, some brown. Some are naked, and some *hairy*. They crawl about, and eat the leaves of trees and plants. One kind of caterpillar, called the *wax-worm* gets into bee hives, and eats both wax and honey.

Caterpillars wrap themselves up like the silk worm, to keep warm in winter, and the next spring they *change* to butterflies, *moths*, and *dragon flies*. These insects lay eggs, and caterpillars hatch from the eggs.



15. There are many kinds of BUTTERFLIES. Some are very pretty. They fly round flowers all summer, but die in the fall.

They have six legs, but make use of only four. Their wings are different from those of any other fly : they are four in number, and though two of them should be cut off, the insect has still the power of flying.



16. THE MOTH.



17. THE DRAGON FLY.

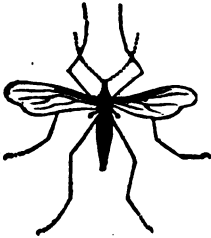
Moths fly only at night. They often fly round candles till they burn their wings. One kind of moth eats holes in books and in woolen clothes.



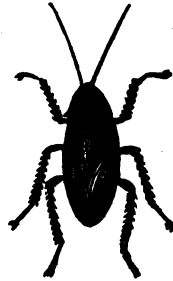
18. THE BOT FLY looks like a bee, but has no sting. It lays its eggs on the hair of a horse. When the horse bites or scratches himself, the eggs get into his mouth, and pass to his stomach with his food. They hatch by the warmth of his stomach, and the *bot-worms* eat

holes in the horse's intestines, and sometimes kill him.

Another kind of fly lays its eggs in the noses of sheep. Another kind lays them in the backs of young cattle. The eggs hatch under the skin, and in the spring you will find large worms in the poor creature's back just under the skin.



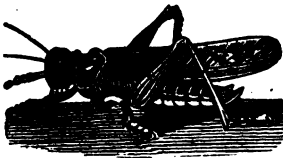
19. THE HESSIAN FLY.



20. THE COCK ROACH.

The *Hessian Fly* is a very injurious insect. Whole swarms of them attack our wheat and destroy large fields of it.

Cock roaches are sometimes very troublesome. They get into our houses in swarms, and eat our bread, ham, and flour. They hide in holes and corners by day, but crawl out by night.



21. THE GRASSHOPPER has two large and strong legs behind. He eats grass, and hops like a frog. Grasshoppers sometimes *multiply* so fast that they destroy all the grass in our meadows. Hens and turkeys are very fond of them.

In Asia and Africa there are large grasshoppers called *Locusts*. These *locusts* often fly from country to country like a great cloud. Where they *light*, they devour every plant on the ground, and every leaf on the trees.

We have a kind of locusts in America, but they are not at all like the locusts of Asia and Africa. They live under ground seventeen years, and in the seventeenth

year they come up by thousands, and fly from tree to tree. They do not eat plants or leaves, but the female *stings* the small branches of trees to lay her eggs.

The *Cricket* is a black insect much like a grasshopper. It loves to be warm, and lives in holes under hearths, or in a wall near a fire.



22. THE LADY-BUG.

23. THE SPANISH FLY.

The *Lady-bug* is a small speckled insect. It eats the lice on cabbages and other plants.

The *Spanish fly* is used to make *blister* plasters. There are many other kinds of insects. Some are useful. A fine *red dye* is made from the *Cochineal*.

Some are very troublesome and injurious. Small black flies eat up our *turnips*. *Striped bugs* devour our young cucumbers and melons. *Beetles* lay eggs in our plums, cherries and other fruit; the eggs *breed* worms, and spoil the fruit. The *Flesh-fly* lays eggs in our meat, and fills it with *maggots*.

Some insects are curious and interesting. The *Fire-fly* and the *Glow-worm* shine in the dark. In summer you will see multitudes of *fire-flies* or (*lightning-bugs*,) flying about; and when they open their wings, they look like *sparks* of fire. The *tumble-bug* rolls a little ball about on the ground.

Worms.

There are many kinds of *Worms*. Some are young insects. In a few weeks they will change their shape and fly about in the air. Other worms never become insects. They have neither feet, eyes nor ears.

The *Earth Worm* is often used to *bait* a fish-hook. If you cut an earth worm in two, the head will get a new tail in a few weeks; and the tail will get a new head in the same time.

The *Leech* or *Blood-sucker* swims in water, and sucks the blood of men and animals when they go into the water. Doctors often use leeches to draw blood from the face or body of their *patients*.

There are many very small animals, called *animalcules*. You cannot see them without a *microscope*. There are thousands of them in one *drop* of water.

CHAPTER IV.—FURTHER DEVELOPMENT OF VERBS.

Section I.—Concord of the Preteritive Tenses. (See Note 6,)

I. PRETERITES OF PRINCIPAL VERBS.

I *think* (now) that you *like* lemons.

I *thought* (then) that you *liked* lemons.

John *says* that he *loves* chestnuts.

John *said* that he *loved* chestnuts.

(The conjunction *that* is often omitted.)

Here are some grapes. I know you *like* them.

I gave Miss B. some grapes. I *knew* she *liked* them.

My sister *said* she *liked* you very much.

I *thought* you *understood* me.

II. DO, DOES, DID.

I *know* that it *does* not rain.

I *knew* that it *did* not rain.

I *asked* Mary and Susan if they *liked* to dance. Mary *said* she *did*; Susan *said* she *did* not.

III. AM, IS, ARE,—WAS, WERE.

I *am* twenty-five years old.

I *said* I *was* twenty-five years old.

You *know* that I *am* not well. Why *do* you teaze me?

You *knew* that I *was* not well. Why *did* you teaze me?

I *thought* that that child *was* crying.

I *thought* that those boys *were* too cruel.

I *thought* that ring *was* gold, but it is brass.

IV. HAVE, HAS, HAD.

"I think I have seen your father." "He has never been here, sir."

I *thought* I *had* seen B——'s Father, but B—— *said* he *had* never been here.

I *thought* that I *had* lost my knife, but it was on the table, under a newspaper.

Mr. A. *said* that Mr. B. *had* gone to the city, but he was mistaken.

"I have had that knife five years."

Mr. A. *told* us that he *had* had that knife five years.

V. WILL, WOULD.

1. *Simple futurity, (in the second and third persons.)*

I *think* it *will* rain. I *thought* ~~it~~ *would* rain.

I *fear* that the ice *will* break. I *feared* that the ice *would* break.

I *fear* that you *will* fall. I *feared* that you *would* fall.

"When will Mr. P. return from the city?"

"What did you say?" "I *asked* you when Mr. P. *would* return from the city?"

2. *A promise, determination, will, obstinacy.*¹

(*In the first person.*)

"I will give you new books to-morrow."

Mr. A. *said* he *would* give us new books to-morrow,
I will bring you an orange when I return from the city.
I *said* I *would* bring you an orange, but I forgot it.

"If you will forgive me, I will never do so again."

He *said* that if I *would* forgive him, he *would* never do so again.

I saw two boys quarreling. One said, "give me my knife." The other replied, "I *wont* (will not); it is mine."

With emphasis, in the second and third persons.

That boy **WILL** always do as he pleases. He **WILL** not obey his parents. His mother told him to go and fetch the cows, he **WOULD** not do it.

Some boys **WOULD** go a skating. Their parents *told* them the ice *would* break; and so it did. Two of the boys were drowned.

"I *told* you that the rope *would* break, but you **WOULD** swing; and so you got a bad fall. I hope you will mind me next time."

VI. **SHALL, SHOULD.**

A simple prediction or anticipation. (*In the first person.*)

I think I shall go to the city to-morrow.

1 *Will*, in this sense, is often nearly equivalent to *insist on*, and *will not*, to *refuse to*. He would go. He insisted on going. He would not go. He refused to go.

I *thought* yesterday that I *should* go to the city to-day.

I *hoped* we *should* see Mr. W. to-day.

When Miss H. went home last spring, she had a very bad cough, and we all *thought* we *should* never see her again.

Last vacation I ate so much green fruit that my mother *was* afraid I *should* be sick.

2. *When the speaker determines for another person.*

"You shall go to the city this afternoon, if it is fair."

I *said* you *should* go if it *was* fair.

A careless boy broke a looking-glass. His mother *told* him he *should* pay for it.

A woman *told* her boy he *should* have a cake if he *would* behave well.

(In asking questions, we use the same word which is to be used in the answer.)

Shall I go? You shall. I *asked* if I *should* go. Mr. A. *said* I *should*. Will you go? I will. I *asked* Mr. A. if he *would* go. He *said* he *would*.

(The same is to be observed in narrating a threat or promise.)

"I *will* knock you down." An angry man said he *would* knock me down.

"You *shall* pay for breaking my sled."

He said I *should* pay for breaking his sled.

"*Will* you come and see me next week?" "I *will*."

Further illustrations of shall and will.

Will no body help me? I shall be drowned.

I *will* protect you. No body *shall* hurt you.

I *need not* protect you. No body *will* hurt you.

I fear I shall not learn my lesson, but I *will* try.

George fears that he shall not learn his lesson, but says he will try.

I will give him a new book
He shall have a new book } if he will study his lesson well.

VII. CAN, COULD.

I think that boy can hear. I *thought* that boy *could* hear.

"I think I can break this stick. No : I cannot."

Mr. A. *thought* he *could* break that stick, but he *could* not.

A boy *said* he *could* jump over a wide ditch. He tried it,¹ and fell in the mud. The other boys laughed at him, and said : "We *knew* you *could* not do it. You were a fool to try."

VIII. MAY, MIGHT.

1.—*Permission.*

My father *said* I *might* go a fishing. I went to the river, but *could* hardly catch one fish.

An old man threatened to whip a bad boy. The boy *told* him he *might* do it if he could catch him.

Mr. A. *says* I *may* go out. Mr. A. *said* I *might* go out.

2.—*Possibility.*

I *thought* it *might* rain to day.

Will the doctor come to day ? Perhaps he *may*, perhaps he *may* not.

Mr. A. *said* that the Doctor *might* or *might* not come.

¹ Here it stands for the infinitive *to jump*; he *tried to jump*.

IX. MUST, *MUST*.1.—*Necessity; authoritative advice; pressing invitation.*

All men *must* die. Sinners *must* repent or perish.

Thieves *must* be put in prison. Children *must* obey their parents.

Our teacher *told* us that we *must* not play in school.

My father *said* that I *must* write often to him.

You *must* be diligent. You *must* not be idle.

My friend *told* me, as I took leave of him, that I *must* come and see him again as soon as I could.

I *must* go to the city to-day. I have important business¹ to attend to.

2.—*Assurance, certain belief or conviction.*²

(Usually a conclusion drawn from convincing circumstantial evidence.)

That gentleman *must be* my uncle, though I cannot remember him.

When James returned home, after he had been absent ten years, he met a little girl at the door. He thought she *must be* his sister, because she looked so much like his mother.

"You acted very strangely. The gentlemen *must* think you a fool."

¹ Important business, an unimportant affair. "You *must* go; the business is very important." "You need not go; the matter is of no importance." "Mind your own business." "Mr. C. came to see me on business." "Are you going for business or pleasure?"

² *Must* has usually this sense before *be*, (followed by a noun or adjective,) *know*, *think*, *remember*, and a few verbs of similar signification. In the sense of *necessity* it usually refers to the future; in the sense here considered it refers to the present or past. In the latter sense *cannot* is the opposite of *must*. *Must not* is never used in the sense of *certainty*, nor perhaps in that of simple necessity. It generally carries an air of *authority* and a reference to the future.

My brother *must* know I am sick. Why does not he come to see me.

Cannot be—could not. can? (Opposed to *must be*, &c.)

"That lady *cannot be* Miss A." "It *may be* Miss B."
 "No, I am sure it *must be* Miss C."

Can that boy be my cousin William? I did not think he had grown so tall.

I saw something black in a tree. I asked my brother what it was.

He *said it might be* a bear. I *thought it could not be* a bear, for I had never seen or heard of any bears in our woods. We went up to¹ the tree and found that it was a boy with a black coat on, picking grapes.

X. OUGHT TO—OUGHT TO. SHOULD—SHOULD.

(*Duty, propriety.*)

You *ought to* } obey your parents and teachers.
 You *should* }

You *ought not to* } go out without leave.
 You *should not* }

Mr. A. *told* us that we *ought to* be civil and respectful to strangers.

We *should* be kind and affectionate to each other.

Strangers *should* be hospitably treated.

New books *should* not be torn or dirtied.

Would (like *should*) is used in the present tense, with the sense of *inclination*.

I *would fain* know where you got that book.

John *would be* a sailor. Peter says he *would rather be* a farmer.

¹ Go up to; walk up to; ride up to; strut up to; &c. Here *up* means not *upwards*, but *close to, near*. It marks a near approach for the purpose of *observation, explanation, insult, &c.*

John *said* he *would* rather be a sailor than a farmer.

(NOTE.—For *would like*, we often say *should like*.)

Should you like to be a watch maker? *Should* you like to visit Boston?

I think I *should like* to be a gardener.

XI.

THE PERFECT AND PLUPERFECT of the above auxiliaries are formed by adding *have* to the *present* and *preterite* respectively.

(Remember that *have* must be followed by a *perfect participle*.)

1. *Should have*—*Should have*.

You *should* go to day or to-morrow. B. *should have gone* yesterday.

Mr. A. *said* that B. *should have gone* yesterday.

You *should* pray every night. You *should have* prayed last night.

(NOTE.—*Should* in the sense of *obligation*, is not much used in the preterite, (without *have*) on account of the ambiguity. "He *said* I *should* go," corresponds much rather to "He *says* I *shall* go," than to, "He *says* I *should* go." When the latter phrase is put in the preterite, *ought* is generally substituted for *should*. "He *said* I *ought* to go."

2. *Ought to have*—*Ought to have*.

You *ought* to go now. B. *ought to have gone* yesterday.

Mr. A. *said* that I *ought* to go now, and that B. *ought to have gone* yesterday.

You *ought not to have gone* out without leave.

Mary *ought not to tease* her little sister.

Mary *ought not to have* taken away her little sister's doll. She made her cry.

3. *Would have.*

I asked Mary to come home with me. She *would* gladly *have* come, but her mother *would* not let her!¹

4. *May have—might have.* (*Possibility of a past event.*)

It *may* rain to-morrow, but I do not think it will.

It *may* be raining now. Look out and see.

It *may have* rained last night, but I don't think it did.

Mr. G. *said* it *might have* rained last night.

It *may have* snowed last Christmas. I do not remember.

Mr. T. *said* it *might have* snowed last Christmas.

I *thought* it *might* have rained during the night.

I *was* afraid some one *might* have stolen my horse.

5. *Must have.*

It *must* have rained, the ground is wet.

Some one *must* have stolen my horse; I cannot find him any where.

You *must* have been cold last night.

Where is my knife? You *must* have seen it.

"Did you sleep well last night?" "Yes." "Indeed! I thought the thunder *must* have awaked you."

6. *Cannot have—could not have.*

"Miss O—— was very sick last week, and they say she

¹ The teacher will explain that *will* and *would* express an *efficacious will*, while *would* and *would have*, especially the latter, express a *frustrated will*, or an intention unfulfilled. *Should have* also expresses a duty neglected. These forms more properly belong to the Potential mood. See Section XI of this chapter.

was at church yesterday ! *Can she have recovered so soon ?*"

"I do *not* think she *can have left* the house yet, though she was much better on Saturday."

"Has Mr. P. returned ?" "I think he *cannot have* returned yet."

My neighbor *told* me that my hog *had* been rooting up his potatoes. I *told* him that my hog *could not have* done it; for he had a ring in his nose. It *must have* been some other hog, and *might have been* his own.

"Some one has taken a silver pencil case from my room."

"John may have done it."

"I do not think he can have taken it; he has not been in my room to day. I think Mary *must have* taken it."

"I took it in jest, sir."

"You *should not have* done so."

(Let the pupil convert such dialogues as the foregoing into the narrative form; thus :)

Mr. A. *said* that some one *had* taken a silver pencil case from his room. B. *said* that John *might* have done it. Mr. A. *did not* think John *could* have taken it, because he had not been in the room, (that day.) He *thought* that Mary *must* have done it. Mary *said* that she took it in jest. He *told* her that she *ought not* to have done it.

7. *Need not have.*

You *need not have* gone to the city yesterday. You had no business there.

Section II.—The Present Tenses. (See Note 7.)

I. THE ACTUAL PRESENT.

The bell *is ringing* for dinner.

The boys *are playing* on the lawn.

The blossoms of the apple trees *are opening*.

I *am writing* a letter to my parents.

Mr. A. *is shaving* himself; he *is preparing* to go to the city.

The sun *is setting*. The moon *is rising*.

That man *is beating* his horse with a club.

The cows *are trying* to get into the corn-field.

II. THE HABITUAL PRESENT.

John *rings* the bell when dinner is ready.

The boys *play* on the lawn for an hour or ~~two~~ every week day in fair weather.

Farmers *plant* their corn when the apple trees *begin to* blossom.

I *write* to my parents once a month.

Mr. A. *shaves* himself, but Mr. B. *goes* to a barber

The moon *rises* later and later every night.

The sun *sets* at about five o'clock in January, and at about seven o'clock in July.

The Hindoos *worship* idols. Some savages *eat* human flesh.

When that man is drunk, he sometimes *beats* his wife with the tongs.

The snow *falls* much deeper and *lies* much longer in Canada than it does here.

III. THE PERMANENT PRESENT.

The Hudson River *rises* in the mountains north of Saratoga; it *runs* southwardly, and *empties* into the Bay of New-York. The tide *flows* as high up as Albany.

The Passaic *falls* seventy feet at Paterson.

The streets of Philadelphia *cross* each other at right-angles.

New-York *stands* on an Island. The East River *separates* it from Brooklyn.

My watch *does not go*. The steam-boat *does not run* to-day.

My father *lives* in Y. His house *stands* some distance off the public road. A small brook *flows* through his garden. This brook fills a pond at the bottom of the garden, and *falls* over a stone dam in a beautiful cascade.

On very high mountains snow *lies* all the year, and ice never *melts*.

The sun does not *go out* and *kindle* again like a fire or a lamp. It *shines* perpetually, though we cannot always see it.

God *sees* you at all times. He *observes* your secret actions and *knows* your secret thoughts.

IV. THE GENERAL PRESENT IS USED FOR THE ACTUAL PRESENT.

- 1.—*Where the verb expresses not properly an ACTION, but a STATE, physical, moral or mental, (of the organs, perceptions, intellect, feelings, &c.)*

(See Part I. Pages 196, 271, 297 and 303.)

I *see* you. I *hear* the locomotive. I *feel* cold.

He *sleeps*. You *look* ill. You *seem* fatigued.

That purse *feels* heavy. I hear a drum; it *sounds* near.¹

I *like* that picture. That picture *pleases* me.

I *think* you are mistaken. I *believe* you are right.

- 2.—*When the attention is directed not to the fact that the action is at the moment going on, but to the PLACE, MANNER, &c., of the action.*

Where is John? He *stands* in that corner.

¹ i. e. You are ill (*judging*) by your looks. It is heavy (*judging*) by its feel. It is near (*judging*) from the sound, &c. The verb *feel* is often used for *emphasis*. I *am* cold. I *feel* cold. I feel sick. I felt hurt. He felt offended. Often it expresses concealed feeling. "He felt hurt, but said nothing."

Where is *my* hat ? It hangs on that nail.
 See how *fast* that horse goes ! He almost flies !
 You *speak* too loud. You make too much noise.
 Mr. B. is writing a letter. He writes *fast*.

- 3.—In many cases in which no ambiguity can result, ~~we~~ commonly use for shortness the general present, though the actual present can also be used. Thus we may either say, "It is raining," or "It rains." "It is beginning to rain," or "It begins to rain." "The sun is shining," or "The sun shines."

The rain falls in large drops.

The wind blows hard. The leaves and dust fly about.

Now the sun shines ; the waters sparkle ; the birds sing
 in the trees ; the bees fly from flower to flower.

Does the fire burn ? Does the boat leak ?

- V. THE ACTUAL PRESENT WITH SOME ADVERBS OF TIME, IS USED TO MARK FREQUENT REPETITION, (*particularly when we speak of it with impatience or petulance,*) OR LONG CONTINUANCE OF AN ACTION.

Some children are always crying.

Some women are always scolding.

That man is continually talking of himself.

I do not like to be all day writing.

- VI. THE PRESENT, AFTER THE CONJUNCTIONS *when, while, before, till, where, if, as soon as, as long as, and some others*, HAS USUALLY A FUTURE SENSE.¹

When I return from the city, I will correct your compositions.

¹ In the Scriptures, and often in lively narratives, the present is used for the past. It will be sufficient to point this out to the pupil when the instances occur in his reading.

When you write to your sister, give my love to her.

You had better go home before it rains.

I cannot go home till my brother comes for me.

I will pay you as soon as I receive my wages.

I will remember you as long as I live.

While you write I will read.

My dog will follow me wherever I go.

If you meet my brother tell him we are all well.

If I find any strawberries I will give you some.

(The Present Imperfect is sometimes used in the same manner after *when, while, &c.*)

You must not interrupt your father while he is speaking on business.

You must be attentive while I am explaining the lesson.

VII. THE PRESENT IS USED SOMETIMES FOR THE FUTURE
WITHOUT A CONJUNCTION.

I go home to-morrow.

When do you leave town? In a day or two.

The Legislature meets next week.

The moon rises at nine this evening.¹

Section III.—The Perfect Tenses.

THE PERFECT IS USED:

- 1.—*With the phrases to-day, this morning, this week, this year, just now, &c.*

(See Part I. Lesson 175, and Part II. Lesson 31.)

I have not seen Mr. P. to-day.

¹ Let the pupil form sentences on each of these conjunctions. The future time does not depend on the conjunction, but on the future sense of the other clause. If this be a present tense, the clause preceded by the conjunction is a habitual present.

2.—*With phrases beginning with since, in or within.*

(See Part II. Lesson 44.)

*I have not seen Miss O. since she was married.**I have written two letters since breakfast.**Mrs. M. has lost three children within a year.**I have not been sick in a long time.*3. *With phrases marking duration to the present time.**Miss S. has been sick two weeks.**Joseph has been absent several days.**Miss N. has been here one year.**Mr. P. has not yet returned.**Mr. G. has taught this class two years.*4. *With often, sometimes, ever, never, and always, we use the perfect when either indefinite past time is meant, or a period of time not yet elapsed, but the preterite when we refer to a period entirely past.*Indefinite past time. *I have often seen Mr. C.*A period not yet elapsed. *I have seen him two or three times this week.*A period entirely past. *I saw him often last winter.**Have you ever fired a gun?**Have you ever seen an elephant?**Have you ever seen Mr. W.?**Did you ever see Mr. W. while you lived at Troy.*5. *When no time is mentioned the perfect is used.*(1.) *While the fact is recent, (particularly if an item of news.)**Mr. C. has gone¹ to France.*

¹ When we say that one *has gone* any where, we always imply that he has not returned. Hence we must use another word when we would include both going and returning, as, "He has been to such a place."
 "Has visited," &c.

I *have spoken* to my father about your business. He *says* that he will be happy to assist you if he can.

I have been ¹ to the store to buy flour.

Have you fed the horse? Have you mended my boots?

See! I have caught another fish.

Look here! I have found a shilling.

(2.) *When the time is intended to be left wholly indefinite.*

I have read Robinson Crusoe, and I liked it much.

I have seen my uncle but once, (in my life.)

My father has traveled through a great part of the United States.

Have you had the small pox or been vaccinated?

6. *After the same conjunctions that give the PRESENT a FUTURE sense, the PERFECT, if coupled with a FUTURE tense, is used as a FUTURE PERFECT.*

I *will come* as soon as I *have dressed* myself.

When we have completed our education, we *shall receive* a Diploma.

After I have looked over your compositions, I *will explain* a new lesson.

When you have learned your lesson, you may go and play.

II. THE PLUPERFECT IS USED :

1. *To follow the preterite in cases in which the perfect would follow the present. (See Section I. of this Chapter.)*

Mr. A. *told* us that Mr. C. *had gone* to France.

My little brother *told* me that he *had never seen* an elephant.

¹ See note on preceding page.

Last week I called to see Mr. D.; but the servant *said* he *had just gone out*.

(NOTE.—When we change the perfect to the pluperfect, we often change *to-day, this week, this fall*, to *that day, that fall, that week*.)

I saw a boy fishing. He *said* he *had not caught* any thing *that day*.

I saw a man carrying home a fox. He *told* me that he *had killed* three foxes *that week*.

2. To mark the relative time of two past events. In this case the pluperfect is usually coupled with the preterite by the conjunctions BEFORE, AFTER, WHEN, AS SOON AS.

I was called out *before* I *had finished* my dinner.

I was called out *after* I *had sat* down to eat.

Mr. M. went to the city *as soon as* he *had eaten* his dinner.

Mr. M. went to the city *when* he *had eaten* his dinner.

Mr. M. went to the city *after* he *had eaten* his dinner.

(NOTE.—The first of these three expressions marks more than common hurry and despatch; the second supposes no unnecessary delay, and the third admits a considerable interval between the two actions. The clauses are very often transposed, so as to begin the sentence with the conjunction.)

After the soldiers *had crucified* Jesus, they parted his garments among them.

(*Before* can precede either clause, giving however, a contrary sense.)

Before I *had finished* my letter I was called out.

Before I was called out I *had finished* my letter.

(*When* can also precede either clause, with a variation, but not an opposition of meaning.)

When I had finished my letter, I went to the city.

When I went to the city, I had finished my letter.

3. *The PLUPERFECT often stands alone, another clause being understood from what precedes or follows.*

I heard from my father yesterday. He *had been* sick but *had recovered*, (i. e. *when* I heard from him.)

I met your brother this morning. He had just arrived in the boat from Albany.

Further Examples.

My father *had not returned* when I left home, but was expected every hour. (Looked for every moment, daily expected.)

A gentleman came to my door *after* I *had gone* to bed. *When* he *had awaked* me, he told me that some one *had stolen* his horse, and begged me to lend him my horse that he might pursue the thief.

I met Mr. N. yesterday, and *asked* him how his wife *was*. He *said* he *had not seen* her in a week, as she was on a visit to her parents.

Mr. W. died very suddenly. He *had just sat* down to dinner when he fell from his chair, and expired in a few minutes.

My horse seemed to be lame. I examined his feet, and found that he *had lost* a shoe.

General Jackson died on the 8th of June 1845. He *had been* sick a long time, and his friends *had long lost* all hopes of his recovery.

After Christ *had risen* from the dead, he appeared often to his disciples.

When Joseph's brethren *had sold* him to the Ishmaelites, they dipped his coat of many colors in the blood of

a kid, and carried it to his father. Jacob thought that some wild beast *had torn* him in pieces.

Some years ago, the skeleton of a negro man *was found* in the woods of Tennessee. It *appeared* that he *had gone* through the woods after dark, with only an axe, and that the wolves had *set upon* him. He *had fought* desperately, for several wolves lay around killed by blows of his axe, but they *had finally overpowered* him by numbers.

THE FUTURE PERFECT OR SECOND FUTURE IS USED :

1. *To mark time that is partly past and partly future.*¹

I shall
You will
This class will } *have been* here two years next September.

I *shall have written* three letters to day when this is finished.

Mr. N.'s little boy is very sick of the scarlet fever. If he dies, Mr. N. *will have lost* four children within a few months.

I will try to catch one more fish, and then I *shall have caught* just a hundred.

Mr. N. *will have been* sick two weeks to-morrow.

Miss A. is going home to-morrow. She *will then have visited* her parents three times since vacation.

I shall pay fifty dollars for my farm next Monday, and then I *shall have paid* five hundred in all. There will be five hundred dollars still due.

Write one more sentence, and you *will have written* a dozen.

2. *To mark the FINISHING of an action at or before some future time.*

¹ This is much the most important use of this tense. (See note 8.)

I *shall dine* at one o'clock. (i. e. begin to dine.)

I *shall have dined* at one o'clock. (i. e. finished my dinner.)

The steamboat *will have started* when you arrive if you do not make haste.

NOTE 1.—We generally use the first future when the other words determine the relative time of the second verb. The steamboat *will start* before you arrive.

NOTE 2.—After *if*, and *though*, *shall* is used in both futures instead of *will* in the second and third persons.

If the ship *shall* have sailed when I arrive, I will follow it in a boat.

If my brother *shall* have returned, he will come with me.

NOTE 3.—*Will*, preceded by *if*, in the first future has *always* its proper meaning of *will*, *consent* or *determination*. In the second future it is not used at all after *if* and *though*.

If he *will* behave well in future, I will forgive the past.

If you *will not* take my advice, I cannot help you.

I will come to see you next week, *if* my father *will* let me have the horse.

I will come to see you *if* the weather shall be pleasant.

You shall have the horse *if* your mother *will* let you go.

Section IV. The Imperfect Tenses. (See note 9.)

I. THE PRESENT IMPERFECT OR ACTUAL IS EXPLAINED IN SECTION II.

See! There are two boys throwing stones at a cow. The cow *is running* about the lot and *trying* to jump over the fence.

(NOTE.—*Is going*, and *is coming* have very often a future sense, especially when followed by a phrase marking future time :)

I am going home to-morrow.

My brother is coming here in a few days.

Are you going to the city to day ?¹

II. THE PAST IMPERFECT IS USED ;

1. To follow a preterite, as in Section I.

He *said* he *was* preparing to build a new barn.

I *thought* the dog *was* barking at a squirrel.

John ran in and *told* his mother that the roosters *were* fighting.

2. Coupled with a preterite by the conjunctions WHILE and AS.

While Tiger and Cæsar *were* fighting for a bone, Pompey ran off with it.²

While I *was* loading my gun, the bird flew away.

A man cut his thumb badly *as* he *was* whetting his scythe.

(We also say ;) he cut his thumb in whetting his scythe. He cut his face in shaving, *or* while shaving.

(NOTE.—The pronoun and auxiliary verb are often omitted after *while*, but not after *as*.)

My horse fell *while* going full speed, but I escaped unhurt.

A boy found a dead sheep in the woods *while* looking for his father's cows. (i. e. while he *was* looking.)

3. Coupled with a preterite by WHEN.

1 The use of *is going to* will be explained in the next Section.

2 Tiger, Cæsar and Pompey are common names of dogs.

When I went in he *was kindling* the fire. (i. e. he began before I went in, and had not finished.)

When I went in he *kindled* a fire. (i. e. he began on my going in, and finished making the fire.)

When I reached home my father *was mowing* in the meadow.

That dog had killed a sheep, and was eating it when I killed him.

4.—*The preterite is often coupled with the past imperfect by AND, BECAUSE and other conjunctions.*

How did you hurt your foot? I *was bathing* in the river, and trod on a sharp stone.

Have you heard what happened to Mr. W.? No: What has happened?

He *was cutting* down a tree, and a dead limb fell on his arm and broke it.

(We can also in the same cases, use *as* before the other clause: *As* he was cutting down a tree a dead limb fell on his arm.)

5.—*The past imperfect sometimes stands alone; a second clause being understood.*

What collected that crowd in the street? Two boys *were fighting*. (i. e. The crowd collected because two boys were fighting.)

Why did not you come when I called you? I *was dressing* myself.

III. COMPOUND TENSES FORMED ON THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

1. "I will call and see you at eight o'clock." "I *shall*

be shaving myself at that hour. You had better¹ come at half past eight."

2. I *have been studying* all the morning. Now I will take a walk.

The cat *has been eating* the butter, I see the marks of her teeth in it.

("The cat *has eaten* the butter," would imply that she ate it all. Compare with the following phrases: "The cat *was eating* the butter when I came in." "Yesterday the old cat got on the shelf and *ate* up nearly all the butter."

3. "Why did you whip the dog so hard?"

"I thought that he *had been killing* sheep. His mouth and fore paws were bloody."

Mr. Gray heard his boy crying for help. He ran to the stable and found him with one leg broken. He *had been currying* a cross horse and the horse had kicked him.

4. If you continue writing till noon, you *will have been writing* three hours.

(NOTE.—The tenses formed by *have been* and *had been* with the present participle, do not always mark an unfinished action. "I have been writing a letter," leaves it doubtful whether the letter was finished, and "I have been writing," purposely avoids giving any information whether any piece of writing was finished or not. The proper use of these forms may be made clearer by comparing them with such as the following: "The boys *have been* in the river," i. e. *have been swimming*. "He *has been* asleep," i. e. sleeping.)

¹ *Had better* and *had rather* are solecisms which custom has sanctioned. Some suppose the latter to be a corruption of *would rather*, often abbreviated to *I'd rather, you'd rather, &c.*; but this explanation will hardly answer for *had better*.

Section V.—The Inceptive forms of the Verb. (See Note 10.)

1. *About to write*; about to go; about to shoot; about to speak; about to take leave; about to rain; about to clear up; &c.

2. *Going to write*; going to shoot; &c.

3. *On the point of writing*; on the point of striking; &c.

Examples.

I think it is *going to rain*. I *was about to take a walk*;¹ but will wait till the rain is over.²

A man saw a pigeon sitting on a tree. As he *was about to shoot* it, a bee stung him in the hand, and he missed his aim.

Make haste. The cars *are about to start*.

Captain Smith was taken prisoner by the Indians. They *were on the point of killing* him with clubs, when their king's daughter, Pocahontas, ran to him and threw her arms round his neck.

(Contrast these forms with the following: *as he fired*; *just as he fired*; &c. "The robber leveled a pistol at me. I struck the muzzle upwards *as he fired*, and the ball passed over my head. As he *was about to fire* a second pistol, my friend wounded him in the arm, and the pistol fell to the ground.")

It is reported that Mr. B. is about to sail for Europe.

Mr. P. is on the point of going to the city.

My father wrote to me that he was about to sell his farm and move to Ohio.

1 *To take a walk*, to walk out for exercise or pleasure. So *to take a ride*, *take a swing*, &c. Similar to this are the idioms, *take flight*; *take a journey*; *take a look* (at any thing); &c. It is to be noted that these are *abstract nouns*, and sometimes differ in form from their verbs: *take flight*, not *take a fly*

2 *Over*, in this connection, means *gone by*, *past*.

I have often been on the point of writing to you, but something has always happened to prevent it.

(NOTE.—Instead of *on the point of dying*, we say, *at the point of death*.)

Mr. R. was thrown from his horse yesterday, and *fractured* his skull. He now lies at the point of death.

(The teacher will explain the difference between these phrases, and the adjectives *ready*, *prepared*, &c., followed by an infinitive. "I am about to go." "I am ready to go with you." Mr. N. is at the point of death, but is not prepared to die.)

Section VI.—Narratives illustrating the preceding forms of the Verb.

1.—A man went into a shoe-store to buy a pair of shoes. When he had found a pair to suit him, he put them on, and ran off without paying for them. The shoe-maker pursued him crying *stop thief!* Before the thief had run far, a man caught him and carried him to the Police Office; and after the shoe-maker had told the story the judge sent him to prison.

2.—A man was walking through his meadow, and as the weather was warm, he took off his coat and hung it on his arm. His pocket-book fell out of his pocket. His dog picked it up and ran about playing with it. When the man got home, he *missed* his pocket-book, and went back to look for it, but could not find it because the dog had carried it away from the path. Some months afterward as he was mowing the meadow, he found the pocket-book in the grass. He was very glad. There were five dollars in the pocket-book.

3.—A farmer rode to town with his horse and light wagon to sell butter and eggs. He neglected to tie his horse while he went into a store. A company of soldiers came along with drums and trumpets. The horse took fright at the drums, and *set off at full speed* along the street. The farmer ran after him, but could not catch him till he had broken the wagon all to pieces, and hurt himself so that he was good for nothing afterwards. The farmer was very careless; he ought to have tied his horse.

4.—A man saw a little boy climbing a ladder. He told the boy that the ladder would fall, but the foolish boy *would* do as he pleased. So he ran up and down the ladder till at last it slipped, and down came the boy on a heap of bricks, breaking three of his fingers and putting his ankle out of joint.¹

5.—A boy asked his father if he might go a fishing. His father said he might when he had finished his *task*, if he would be careful. As soon as the boy had finished his task, he took his hook and line, his pole and basket, dug some worms, and ran to the river to fish. Before he had caught many fish, it began to rain; and when he got home, he was wet to the skin. His mother made him change his clothes, for fear that he might get sick if he kept his wet clothes on.

6.—A hunter saw a raccoon sitting on a high tree. As soon as he got near enough, he fired, but missed. When he had loaded his gun, he fired again and the coon came

¹ This use of the participle is different from any heretofore introduced. It serves to combine two or three simple sentences into one more closely than could be done by means of conjunctions. "He threw off his hat and coat, and went to work with all his might." "Throwing off his hat and coat, he went to work with all his might." "Two Irishmen had a fight—one of them struck the other with a club, breaking his arm, and otherwise severely injuring him." i. e. He struck him and broke his arm, &c.

tumbling through the branches of the tree. When it reached the ground it was not quite dead, but died in a few minutes.

7.—Farmer Hardy gets up early in the morning in winter. As soon as he has made the fire, he goes to the barn to fodder his cattle. After he has eaten breakfast, he harnesses his horses, and goes into the woods on his sled with his boy and axe, to get fire-wood and rails.

8.—George asked his father to let him go in the woods with the gun. His father said he might go if he would be careful, and would return before dinner. George took down the gun and loaded it, he hung his powder-horn over one shoulder, and his shot bags over the other, whistled to the dog, and went up a hill towards a large forest. He saw a squirrel, but he could not shoot it, it ran into a stone fence. He saw some little birds, but would not fire at them. They were so small that they were not worth powder and shot. He saw a flock of quails *stealing* through the grass. He walked softly towards them, and fired as they rose to fly. Two of them fell, one dead and one with a broken wing. He put them in his bag, and went on.¹ A partridge sprang up before him. He fired but missed her. She flew through the trees like an arrow, and he saw her no more. A rabbit jumped up near him, ran a few rods, and stopped to look at him. He *took aim* at it, but his gun *snapped*, (missed fire.) Before he could *cock the gun* again the rabbit started *on a run*. He fired after it, but did not hit it. When he had reloaded and primed his gun, he called his dog, and set him on the track of the rabbit. The dog followed the *scent*, running with his nose close to the ground. George followed as

¹ Go on, ride on, come on, drive on, &c. Here *on* means *onward, forward*.

fast as he could, but soon *lost sight of* the dog. He *listened* and heard him bark. He followed the *sound*, and found the dog barking and scratching at a large heap of stones. He pulled away some of the stones, and saw the back of the rabbit. He *got hold of* it by the legs, pulled it out, and carried it home alive. His mother told him to kill it for dinner. He forgot to hold it fast, and as he was about to kill it, it jumped from his arms, and ran under the barn. He could not catch it again. So he only had two quails for dinner. He said if he ever caught a live rabbit again, he would hold it fast.

9.—Mr. Hardy had been ploughing all day, and when he came home to supper, his boots were very dirty. He forgot to scrape his feet at the door. His wife had been scrubbing the floor, and, when she saw him come in with his dirty feet, she screamed out,¹ “go out and scrape your feet.”

10.—Two hunters in Tennessee found a panther sitting on a tree. They fired and wounded him, but he did not fall. While they were re-loading their guns the panther growled dreadfully. As soon as they had loaded they fired again, and the panther fell. The dogs ran at him, but, though he was mortally wounded, he fought *desperately*, and tore one of the dogs badly. While the panther and the dogs were fighting, the hunters reloaded their rifles, and, coming close to the panther, fired a third time and killed him.

11.—A deaf and dumb man was walking along the streets late at night. A *villain* came behind him with a club, knocked him down, and *robbed* him of² his watch and money.

1 Scream out, cry out, bawl out, bellow out, drawl out.

2 Rob one of money, steal money from one. The former verb takes the person robbed, but the latter the thing stolen in the objective.

12.—Two women were riding together. One of them got out to walk up a hill. At the top of the hill, she was about to get in the wagon again, but, just as she put her foot on the step, the horse started, and she was thrown to the ground and much hurt. The other woman had to go to the next house for help.

Section VII.—Tenses of the Passive Verb.¹

I. VERBS EXPRESSING SENSIBLE ACTIONS.

1. *The Habitual Present.*

Dwelling-houses *are often built* of stone or brick, but in the country, they are most commonly of wood.

Tea is brought from China in ships.

Flour and pork are brought from the west by the canal.

In some countries, little carts and sleds are drawn by dogs.

Oats are sown in April, corn is planted in May.

Sleds and sleighs are not used in England.

Sugar, molasses, coffee and spices are brought from the West Indies.

2. *The Preterite.*

This tea was brought from Canton. This flour was brought from Rochester.

¹ The passive is very often used to avoid naming the actors in any transaction, either because they are not known, or because it is unnecessary or inexpedient to name them. "The store of W. M. & Co. *was broken open* last night and *robbed of* a large amount of goods." "The Mayor of New York is elected annually." "There was a duel at New Orleans last week. One of the parties *was killed* on the spot, and the other slightly wounded." "The body of a pirate is often given to the surgeons for dissection." It is also used to make the passive subject more prominent than the active. "Mrs. C. *was murdered* by her own husband."

This loaf was baked in a stove. This potatoe was roasted under the ashes.

A gentleman was knocked down last night in Thirteenth street, and robbed of his pocket book, containing about fifty dollars.

The steamboat *Lexington* was destroyed by fire in Long Island sound, a few years since, and many persons were either burned to death or drowned.

NOTE.—When the active verb takes an objective after it by means of a preposition, the preposition still follows the verb in the passive.

They sent a boy for the doctor. } A boy *was sent* for the doctor.
They *sent for* the doctor. } The doctor *was sent for*.¹

3. *The Perfect.—First Form.* (See note 11.)

John *has broken* his slate. It *is broken* so that he cannot use it.

The tailor *has not finished* my coat. My coat *is not finished*.

Have you milked the cows? *Are the cows milked*?

Who *has torn* this book? It *is badly torn*.

You are too late; we have eaten all the apples. (The apples are all eaten.)

(NOTE.—Some intransitive verbs are used in the passive form. He *is gone*. They *are come*. The boat *is arrived*. So, deceased, descended, fled, fallen, grown, and blown.

4.—*The Perfect. Second Form.*

This slate *has been broken* a week.

My letter *has been written* two days.

¹ See note on preceding page.

The horse has not been *curried* or *watered* to-day.

That horse has never been beaten in a *race*.

The North River has not been frozen over opposite the City in many years.

The North River has been frozen over at Albany every winter since the country was settled.

My shoes have been mended several times. They are almost worn out.

My hair has not been cut since the cold weather began.

The seal of this letter has been broken.¹

5.—*The Pluperfect. First Form.*

When he had finished his letter }
When his letter was finished } he sent it to the post office.

When I had loaded my gun }
When my gun was loaded } I fired and killed the bird.

Before the boys had raked the hay }
Before the hay was raked } it began to rain.

6.—*The Pluperfect. Second Form.*

Last fall I saw a poor man sitting on his wagon at the foot of a hill. His horses *had not been fed* that day, and they were too weak to draw the wagon up hill.

A boy took his father's gun to go a hunting. The gun *had not been used* for some time, and it was very *rusty*. He put too much powder in it, and it burst and tore his left hand to pieces.

Some boys went into a garden one dark night to steal water-melons, but the melons *had all been taken away*, and when they got home, they found that they had only been stealing pumpkins and squashes.

¹ "The seal &c.—has been broken," implies that it has been resealed.
"The seal is broken," implies the contrary.

7.—*The Future.*

School *will be dismissed* in an hour.

We *shall be called* to dinner at half past twelve.

My new coat *will be finished* to-morrow.

That bad boy *will be whipped* when he gets home.

8.—*The Future Perfect.*

The river *will have been frozen* a month to-morrow.

(This tense is little used. When the time is not both past and future, the first future passive usually corresponds to both the futures active. "When we have raked this windrow *we shall have finished for to-day*," is translated by "*our raking for to day will be finished*.")

9.—*The Imperfect Tenses.* (See Note 12.)10.—*The Inceptive Tenses*

Miss. R. *is about to be married*.

(These forms are little used in the passive.)

II. VERBS THAT IN THE ACTIVE VOICE WANT THE TENSES IN ING.

England *is governed* by a Queen and a Parliament; the United States *are governed* by a President and Congress.

General Washington *was loved and respected* by his whole army.

Liars *are not believed* even when they speak the truth.

Miss B. *is more admired* than Miss C., but not as much loved.

I *am grieved*, but not *offended*.

I *am amazed* to hear that Mr. D. *is married*.

I *was much amused* to see an old gander chasing a pig.

I *am pleased* to see you. I *am delighted* to see you in good health.

Miss E. was taking a walk and met a drunken man. She was much *alarmed*, and walked home as fast as she could.

I was much *entertained* and *interested* by your story.

Your father will be *displeased* when he hears what you have done.

John was much *enraged* to find that William had broken his sled.

Miss F. was so much *disgusted* to see her lover chew tobacco, that she would never receive his visits afterward.

I am *tired* of telling you the same things over again. You must try to remember.

I am *satisfied* that you did not mean to offend me.

Miss G. was greatly *shocked* to see her brother come home drunk.

(Note that Verbs expressing *influence* often *nearly* (though seldom *exactly*), correspond in idea with other verbs expressing *feeling*, the one putting the cause of the feeling in the nominative, and the other in the objective, as :)

I like that picture. That picture pleases me.

I lothe a drunkard. A drunkard disgusts me.

I do not fear you. You cannot frighten me.

(Hence the active voice of verbs of one class sometimes nearly corresponds to the passive voice of the other.)

When Christ healed the sick, the people { wondered.
were amazed.

(The teacher can give examples of the use of the auxiliaries *may*, *must*, *can*, *might*, *could*, &c., before the passive verb. That book *must* be found. Debts *must* be paid. The panther *cannot* be tamed.)

Section VIII.—Infinitives. (See Note 13).

I. INFINITIVES FOLLOWING VERBS.

1.—*Following another verb as its direct object.*

I love *to read* new books. I hate *to hear* foolish talk.

Mr. A. intends *to marry*, but Mr. B. prefers *to live* single.

When I was a little boy my mother promised *to give* me a cake if I would behave well, and threatened *to whip* me if I behaved ill.

When school was out, the boys began *to play*, but one of them tried *to cheat*, and the others refused to play with him.

(Practice the pupil in putting infinitives after the following verbs; and note that intransitive verbs, which require a preposition before a noun, always omit the preposition before the infinitive.)

Like, dislike, love, hate, delight, abhor.

Want, wish, expect, hope (for), desire, long (for); fear, dread.

Promise, threaten, swear (to);¹ offer, propose, refuse, decline.

Design, intend, mean, think (of), calculate (on), conclude, determine.

Choose, prefer, decide, resolve (on); undertake; appoint.

Agree (to), consent (to), submit (to), incline (to). Contrive, conspire.

¹ *Swear* with an infinitive signifies a solemn oath or vow to do some act future to the vow. A witness is sworn to speak the truth. A wife swears to obey her husband. *Swear that* usually relates what was said under oath, or in profane language, "He swore that he would kill me." "The witness swore positively that the prisoner was the same man."

The teacher will take the opportunity to illustrate this verb in such phrases as: "He swore *at* me," "He swore *to* it." i. e. to some fact. The verb may govern some abstract nouns without a preposition. Swear obedience. Swear allegiance.

Fail (in), omit, neglect, forget; remember, make out, take care; learn.

Prepare (for), begin, cease (from), proceed (to), continue.

Learn how, know how, forget how, contrive how, &c.

Appear, seem. Pretend, feign, profess, prove.¹

Happen, chance. Use, be accustomed, be wont.

Afford. Deserve. Bear, endure. Condescend, deign.

Dare. Presume, make bold, take the liberty, venture.

Hasten, hesitate, delay, forbear.

Grieve (at or for,) regret, rejoice (at,) marvel (at,) wonder (at,) blush (at,) tremble (at,) shudder (at,) weep (at,) laugh (at.)

Try, endeavor, labor, strive, seek, make an effort.

Examples of the omission of the preposition before the infinitive.

I laughed at his behaviour. I laughed to see him behave so ridiculously.

He agreed to my offer. He agreed to go with me.

I sent Henry for water. I sent Henry to get water.

The Mexicans are resolved on war. (Resolved to go to war.)

Cease from troubling me. Cease to trouble me.

2. *After many INTRANSITIVE verbs, the infinitive is used to express FOR, or IN ORDER TO.*

We went to see M. A. go up in a balloon, (in order to see.)

Mr. A. has gone home to attend his brother's wedding.

¹ Prove, when it governs to be, signifies is proved or ascertained.
"The report proves to be false."

I stopped^{*} to enquire the way, and sat down to rest myself.

Every body ran to catch the thief.

(So; stand up to speak, sit down to write, and retire to dress.)

3. *Many TRANSITIVE verbs take an infinitive after their objectives.*

I wish *you to go*; I do not wish *to go myself*.

I hired a *man to work* for me. I sent a *boy to feed* the horse.

Mr. G. teaches *us to read* and *write*.

Mr. H. invited *me to come* and *see* him.

Practice the pupil with the verbs; wish, desire, expect.

Employ, hire, order, direct, tell, forbid, command, authorize.

Ask, beg, request, entreat, exhort, urge, beseech, teaze. Press, invite. Prompt. Advise, counsel, warn, admonish. Coax, tempt. Challenge, defy, dare.¹

(The foregoing verbs express various ways of conveying the wishes or will of one person to another, and leave it doubtful whether the action desired or directed *to be done* was done. "He wished me to go," "He asked me to go," "He forbade me to go," all leave it uncertain whether I went or not. But after several verbs expressing an *efficacious influence*, we always understand that the action expressed by the infinitive *was* or *will be done*.)

The Jews *compelled* Simon of Cyrene *to bear* the cross.

Eve *persuaded* her husband *to eat* the forbidden fruit.

A large stone in the road *caused* my horse to stumble.

I will *coax* your father *to let* you go.

¹ *Dare* to challenge, which is regular.

You *made* me (to) *laugh*. It *made* my hair (to) *stand* on end.

If you strike the horse, it will *make* him (to) rear and plunge; he will not *stand*¹ such usage.

Practice the pupil on the following verbs.

Compel, force, oblige, *make*, cause, occasion. Help, aid, assist; enable.

Coax, entice, allure, persuade, tempt,² induce; encourage; provoke.

Allow, suffer, permit. Use, accustom, train, teach.

(NOTE.—When the action was not done, a qualifying adverb is joined to the verb.)

You *almost* persuade me to be a christian.

That boy was so saucy he *nearly provoked* me to strike him.

You jogged my elbow, and *almost made* me *spill* the milk.

4. *Verbs that govern an objective before an infinitive, (with few exceptions,) take infinitives after their passive forms.*

We *are forbidden* to hurt ourselves or others.

We *are taught* to read and write.

I *was invited* to attend Miss W's wedding.

Simon *was compelled* to bear the cross.

Our boat upset and we *were forced* to swim for our lives.

It rained so hard that I *was obliged* to get under a load of hay.

(NOTE.—*Wish* is hardly used in the passive. We do not say, "You *are wished* to go," but, "You *are desired*

1 *Stand*, i. e. *stand still under, bear, endure*. Stand fire, stand cold.

2 *Tempt* does not always imply that the action was done, particularly in the passive. *Coax* also sometimes expresses merely an *attempt to persuade*.

to go." On the contrary *say* is followed by an infinitive in the passive but not in the active: "He *is said to be* rich."

5. *Some verbs admit TO BE after them, which hardly admit any other infinitives, and after these verbs, TO BE may often be omitted.*

I *believe* him (*to be*) honest. I *think* him (*to be*) a fool.
You will *find* it (*to be*) difficult. I can *prove* it (*to be*) true.

6. *After some verbs, the sign (TO) of the infinitive is omitted.*

Of these the following take an objective before the infinitive.

See, feel, hear, let, bid, make. Have, help, know.

(NOTE.—*Have* drops the *to* only in certain idiomatic phrases, and the rule is not absolute after *help* and *know*.)

Examples.

Did you see John strike Peter? No. But I *saw* Peter *push* John.

I *felt* some one *put* his hand in my pocket.

I *heard* a dog *bark*. I *hear* the bell *ring* for dinner.

Let the horse *drink*. That cow will not *let* you *touch* her calf.

Bid the child *be* still. My father *bade* me *hold* my tongue.

This apple is so sour it would *make* a pig *squeal*.

I will not *have* that bungler *shoe* my horse.¹

¹ The Teacher must make the pupil observe that, when *have* is employed in the sense of *necessity*, *to* cannot be omitted; "meat *has to be cooked*, (or we *have to cook* meat,) before we can eat it." Sometimes the objective comes *before* and sometimes *after* the infinitive.

We shall be *glad to have* you *stay* to dinner.

Old people *like to have* their children *visit* them.

I *would not have* Mr. P. *hear* of your ill behavior for fifty dollars.

Help me *lift* the table. *Help* Mr. A. *put* on his great coat.

I never *knew* the horse *kick* before, (or, *to kick*.)

Dare and *need* take the infinitive directly after them; (like *must* and *ought*,) but are chiefly used in negative and interrogative sentences.

I *dare* not *go*. I *durst* not *go*.

Dare you *fire* a cannon?

I *dare say* you will be glad to see her.

You *need* not *come* to-morrow. You *need* not *be* afraid.

Need I *copy* all this? You *need* not.

You *need* *go* no further. The boy *need* not make such a noise.

(NOTE 1.)—*Need* when thus used seems often to want the termination of the third person.

(NOTE 2.)—When *dare* is employed with an auxiliary verb, the *to* is expressed.

He *will* not *dare to go*. *Has* he *dared to go*?

(*Need* is hardly used with an auxiliary, some other mode of expression being generally substituted. "It will not be necessary for you to go." "There will be no need of your going.")

"I have a letter to write." "I have a visit to make." There is however some difference of meaning, because *have* when it takes an objective immediately after it, usually preserves more or less of its proper signification. "When I lived at — I *had to wash* my own shirt." "You were better off than I; for I *had no shirt to wash*." In those idiomatic phrases in which the *to* of the infinitive is omitted, *have* is generally part of a phrase expressing *will*, *willingness*, or *determination*.

(NOTE 3.)—*To be* retains *to* after several of the foregoing verbs.

I *saw* it *to be* a mistake. She *felt* it *to be* cruel.

(NOTE 4.)—After the passives of these verbs, *to* is usually retained.

He *was seen to put* his hand in that gentleman's pocket.

7. From some of the foregoing examples it will be seen that one infinitive often governs another. This is more commonly the case when one of the infinitives drops the sign *TO*.

I like *to see* the boys *play*.

Promise me not *to let* any one *know* of it.

It makes me uneasy *to hear* you *cough* so much.

8. The INFINITIVE after the verb *TO BE*, is used as a FUTURE PARTICIPLE, often also importing some degree of OBLIGATION or NECESSITY, or the FULFILMENT of an APPOINTMENT.

We *are to have* a new lesson to-morrow.

Mr. B. *is to lecture* next Sunday.

There *is to be* a great race next week.

Mr. C. *is to preach* at Harlem next Sunday.

(The teacher will remark that when two or more infinitives are connected by the conjunction *and*, the sign *to* is usually omitted in every place but the first. "I learn *to read and write*."

II. INFINITIVES FOLLOWING ADJECTIVES.

1. Infinitives follow many adjectives immediately, a preposition being probably understood.

Are you *willing to live* with me?

¹ Remark the difference between "*I am willing to go,*" and "*I am willing for you to go.*"

I am *anxious to hear* from my parents.

I am *glad to see* you so well.

I was *amazed to hear* him talk so.

Adjectives that take infinitives directly after them are of two or three kinds :

• (1.) *Expressing DISPOSITION or PREPARATION towards an action.*

| | | | | |
|-----------|------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| eager, | loth, | resolved, | cautious, | prepared, |
| willing, | unwilling, | determined, | careful, | able, |
| zealous, | backward, | inclined, | quick, | unable, |
| desirous, | afraid, | | slow, | fit, |
| forward, | | curious, | apt, | unfit, |
| anxious, | | ambitious, | ready, | |
| urgent, | | | prompt, | |

Some adjectives express qualities of the object. Apples are *good to make* pies. The flesh of a dog is not *fit to eat*. Hickory is *good to burn*. Pepperidge is very hard to split. This brook is too wide to leap over.

In this case the *infinitive active* is often used when the *passive* would seem more proper.

Mr. Z. is hard to please.

(2.) *Marking the effect or consequences of an action.*

| | | | |
|----------|------------|------------|--------------|
| Glad. | Happy. | Disturbed. | Vexed. |
| Sorry. | Fortunate. | Surprised. | Pleased. |
| Content. | Lucky. | Amazed. | Displeased. |
| Angry. | Unlucky. | Amused. | Offended. |
| Enraged. | Welcome. | Ashamed. | Annoyed; &c. |

(In many cases it seems doubtful whether some of the above are to be considered as *adjectives* or as *participles passive*.)

- (3.) *Adjectives are sometimes applied to the actor on account of the action.*

You are *good* to say so.

2. *Infinitives often follow adjectives by INVERSION.*

- { *To see* the sun is pleasant.
- { *It is* pleasant *to see* the sun.
- { *To tell* lies is very wicked.
- { *It is* very wicked *to tell* lies.
- { *To be* alone is not good for man.
- { *It is* not good for man *to be* alone.

(Here the infinitive is the nominative to the verb, and when placed after the verb, is represented by the pronoun *it*.)

So are used all adjectives that may express *qualities of actions*, as :

Good, bad, pleasant, unpleasant, right, wrong, wise, foolish.

Safe, dangerous, decent, indecent, just, unjust, honest, dishonest.

Necessary, unnecessary, common, uncommon, easy, hard, difficult.

Reasonable, unreasonable, absurd, proper, improper useful, useless.

Civil, rude, polite, impolite, kind, cruel, merciful, natural, melancholy, &c.

(There is another construction of the infinitive after the above adjectives, by which it is put in *apposition* with a pronoun in the *objective* case.)

I think *it wrong* to tell a falsehood, even in jest.

The Jews held *it sinful* to eat with unwashen hands.

(This mode of expression may be varied as follows :)

I think it unfortunate
 I think it *to be* unfortunate
 I think *that it is* unfortunate

} to have more money than brains.

III. INFINITIVES OFTEN FOLLOW NOUNS.¹

(These are chiefly *abstract* nouns, formed from the verbs or adjectives which govern the same infinitives, or corresponding to them in meaning.)

Arnold { *plotted*
 laid a plot } *to betray* West Point to the British.

Mr. P. { *permitted me*
 gave me permission } *to visit* my friends in the city.

Mr. G. { *was invited*
 received an invitation } *to attend* a wedding.

Mr. Graves { *challenged* Mr. Cilley
 sent Mr. Cilley a challenge } *to fight* a duel.

It is *unfortunate* } *to have* many children and not enough
It is a *misfortune* } for them to eat.

It is *very wicked* } *to mock* and disobey your parents.
It is a *great sin* }

(NOTE.—The phrases with abstract nouns are usually the most pointed and forcible.)

(Another construction is shown in the following examples.)

{ John threatened to kick me. This made me very angry.
 { John's threat to kick me made me very angry.

{ I *offered to pay* the gentleman for his trouble. This he refused.

{ The gentleman refused my *offer to pay* him for his trouble.

Have you heard of Mr. Smith's *attempt to kill* himself?

I lost a thousand dollars by Mr. Brown's *failure to pay* his debts.

Your *refusal to go* with me hurt my feelings.

¹ Infinitives following nouns are sometimes governed by a preposition understood; "I have no intention (of) to marry;" and sometimes they are in apposition with the nouns: "*It is my delight to sit* under the shade of a large tree with a book in my hand."

(Abstract nouns are so numerous and so various and irregular in termination, that only a few of the most common instances of their use before infinitives can be given in this place.)

The *best time to send* the deaf and dumb to school is at twelve years of age.

I am much hurt by my brother's *neglect to write* to me.

May I *take the liberty to ask* where you are going?

It is my dearest *wish to see* all my pupils become happy, useful and respectable.

You have no *business to come* here. You have no *right to advise* me

The boy was so saucy, I *had a good mind to* kick him.

Mr. T. says he has no *inclination to take* a wife. (i. e. *to marry*.)

Some people have a strong natural *propensity to steal*.

I wrote you a letter, but had no *opportunity to send* it.

I received your letter, but could not get *time to answer* it.

I wish to visit you, but have no *way to go*.

I had a letter ready, but had no *chance to send* it.

My father gave me *leave to go* a fishing, and my mother gave me strict *charge not to go* into the water.

It is the *custom to sing* a hymn before and after sermon.

What is the *use of* a looking-glass? *To see* your face in.

The *use of* an axe is *to cut* wood,—of a scythe *to cut* grass.

(Though the nouns that precede infinitives are generally abstract nouns, yet common nouns, may in certain *idioms*, do the same, an adjective or participle being probably understood.)

Doctor M. is the *man to cure* you. (able to cure.)

He is not a *man to desert* his friends. (disposed to desert.)

This strap is just the *thing to sharpen* a razor.

IV. INFINITIVES SOMETIMES FOLLOW ADVERBS.

You are old *enough to know* better.

That young man is *too old to learn* fast.

This stone is *too heavy* for one man *to lift*.

(NOTE.—Infinitives are qualified like verbs both by adverbs and prepositions.)

He is too fat *to run fast*.

This is a good place *to swim in*.

That girl is beautiful *to look on*.

V. THE INFINITIVE IS USED IN SOME PECULIAR IDIOMS.

It will *take* you an hour *to copy* this lesson.

It *takes* (requires) a skillful man *to mend* a watch.

It will *cost* more than it is worth *to mend* this watch.

My horse fell in a ditch, and *it took* a dozen men *to pull* him out.

A boy *took a notion* (whim, fancy,) *to build* a hut and live alone in the woods.

When Miss H. was on a visit to her uncle, she had a frightful dream, and screamed *so loudly as to alarm* the whole house.

I *would rather go* than *stay*.

I will *take an opportunity* *to speak* to Mr. P. about it when he is not too busy.

(A common but vulgar idiom is the use of *like* in the sense of *in danger of*. "They had *like* to have been killed." Or still more uncouthly, "They *liked* to have been killed." The following phrases however are proper: "You are not likely to find it." "It is likely to rain.")

VI. PERFECT OF THE INFINITIVE.

1.—*After Verbs.* (*It follows comparatively few verbs.*)

You appear *to have walked* fast.

It seems *to have rained* last night.

I grieve *to have offended* my parents.

Practice the pupil on the following verbs :

Appear, seem ; pretend, feign, profess, prove.

Happen, chance. Grieve, regret. Remember, &c.

Also *durst, need, must, ought* ; (the three first omitting the sign *to*.)

The past infinitive is sometimes used improperly, or unnecessarily after the verbs *meant, expected*, and the like. People say, " I meant to have gone ;" " I thought to have killed him ;" " I expected to have received a letter." In all these cases, the present infinitive would be better. When however we wish to express not the whole action, but its being finished, we properly use the past infinitive. " I meant *to have shaved* myself *before* your return."

2.—After Adjectives.

I am *sorry to have* offended you.

I am *happy to have* served you.

3.—As the Nominative to a Verb.

To have been out all night *is* not much to your credit.

What advantage *is it to have learned* a trade, if you forget it afterwards ?

VII. INFINITIVE PASSIVE.

Girls like *to be admired*. Children dislike *to be combed* and *washed*.

Mr. U. cannot bear *to be contradicted*.

Peter climbed a young peach tree against his father's commands. The top of the tree broke off with his weight and he fell to the ground. He pretended *to be* much more *hurt* than he was, fearing his father would whip him.

Our horse ran away with us ; we expected every moment *to be killed*, when a brave young man sprang forward and *at the risk* of his own life, caught the horse by the bridle and stopped him.

Miss F. says she is *afraid to be bled*.

Most young people *feel a desire to be married*.

Your parents have a *right to be consulted* concerning your choice of a trade.

VIII. THE INFINITIVE PASSIVE IS USED :

(1.) *As a future participle ;*

B. the pirate *is to be hanged* next week.

That house *is to be pulled* down and a new one (*to be*) *built* on its site.

The frigate Congress *is to be repaired* and *sent* to the coast of Africa.

(2.) *As a participle importing OBLIGATION or POSSIBILITY.*

Mr. P. is a man not *to be trifled with*.

The sacred office of the ministry is not *to be* lightly *assumed*.

Teach your children that you are always *to be obeyed*.

IX. THE VERBS SEE, HAVE, GET, (AND PERHAPS OTHERS OCCASIONALLY,) ARE OFTEN FOLLOWED BY A PASSIVE PARTICIPLE ;

To *be* having probably been omitted ; for "I saw it done," corresponds to "I saw him do it," and "I will get my horse shod," to "I will get some one *to shoe* my horse."

I *will see* your horse *fed* and *watered*.

I *will see* you *paid*.

Have you ever *seen* a ship *launched*?¹

Some years ago I went to *see* a man *hanged*.

I wish to *get* this book *bound*.

Mr. A. has gone to *get* his wagon *mended*.

Take care, or you may *get* your neck *broken*.

That dog has been fighting and has *got* almost *torn* to pieces.

I *will* not *have* that bird *hurt*. (I will not have any one hurt it.)

I shall be *sorry* to *have* you hurt.

I mean to *have* my house *repaired* and *painted*.

When your white dress *gets stained*, you can *have* it *died* black.

I am waiting to *have* my letter *corrected*.

You deserve to *have* your head *broken*.

Section IX.—Participles.

I. CERTAIN VERBS, PARTICIPLES, ADJECTIVES AND NOUNS, TAKE PARTICIPLES AFTER THEM INSTEAD OF INFINITIVES.

1. *The verbs are, accuse, suspect, despair, boast, repent, (with the preposition of.) Insist (on,) persist (in,) charge (with,) keep on.*

Dissuade, deter, discourage, keep (one from,) keep (one's self from,) refrain, desist, prevent, hinder, (with the preposition from.)

1 The teacher will make the pupil remark the difference between "I saw a wagon overturned," and "I saw a wagon upside down." The former phrase denotes that I saw the overturning; the latter, that I did not. He may hereafter be taught the expression, "I saw a wagon *that* had been overturned;" and its difference from "I saw (perceived) *that* a wagon had been overturned

Avoid, escape, help, confess, deny, own, repent, remember, recollect, forget; *keep*, continue, stop, (without a preposition.)

(Those in *italics* take an objective before the participle, and hence are used in the passive.)

Examples.

They *accused* that man } of *stealing*, (or of *having stolen*)
That man *was accused* } a horse.

This woman stands *charged* with *being* the murderess of Mrs. H.

Mrs. K. *was suspected* of *having poisoned* her husband.
I *despair* of ever *teaching* that boy to write well.

Mr. B. heard an Indian boast of *having scalped* several women and children.

I do not like this work, but cannot *help* (*avoid*) *doing* it,
I could not *keep* (*refrain*) from *laughing*.

I could not *keep* (*restrain*) the dogs from fighting.

If you *insist* on *going* that way, I will leave you.

I *despair* of ever *being* married.

John *confessed* *having stolen* a watch and *hidden* it in a stone fence.

Mr. G. *keeps* us *writing* almost all day.

Let us *keep on writing* we shall soon be done.

Thieves must be punished to *deter* others *from stealing*.

I repent *having done* it. I remember *having said* so.

John denied having taken the watch, (or better, "denied that he had taken it.")

(NOTE 1.—When we use a *possessive* before the participle, the preposition is sometimes omitted, but oftener retained.)

What will hinder you *from going*? What will hinder your *going*?

The steamboat *Eagle* ran into and sunk a sloop. The fog *prevented their seeing* each other in time.

I insist *on your going*. I despair *of his ever paying* me

(The verbs which admit a possessive before the participle are few in number. Examples may be given with the verbs despair of, boast of, prevent, hinder, insist on, avoid, help, deny, admit, remember, forget, stop, resolve on, decide on, think of. The use of the last is rather idiomatic; "I cannot bear to think of your marrying that man.")

(Note 2.—Some verbs admit either participles or infinitives without variation of sense.)

We resolved *to go*. We resolved *on going*.

He ceased to write. He ceased writing.

(So are construed the verbs resolve, conclude, decide, determine, (with, *on*;) think (*of*;) fail (*in*.)

(NOTE 3.—After verbs of motion (i. e. change of place,) an infinitive expresses *in order to*, while a participle expresses the coincidence of two actions.)

When she heard this she *retired weeping*. (She wept as she retired.)

When she heard this she *retired to weep*. (She retired in order to weep in private.)

Idioms.

My horse *stopped to graze*, and the other horses *stopped* (ceased) *grazing*, and came round him.

Mr. O. *came very near killing* his wife yesterday. He was about to hang up his gun when it slipped and in catching it as it fell, he caught the trigger and it went off. The charge of small shot *passed so close* to his wife's head *as to tear* her cap.

(NOTE 4.—*Without*, before a participle, has a negative sense.)

She went away *without saying* a word.

It is hard to carry a full pan of milk *without spilling* some.

He left the table *without having eaten* a mouthful.

There was not a house *left standing*; all were reduced to ashes.

2.—Participles following adjectives.

This young lady is very *fond of reading*.

I am *weary of hearing* you. I am *tired of talking* nonsense.

This old wagon is not *worth mending*.

I am *afraid of catching* the small pox.

That boy is *vain of being* the head of the class.

Are you *sincere in saying* that you love that girl?

Are not you *mistaken in supposing* that John broke your slate?

(The adjectives which admit participles after them are not numerous. Examples may be given with *fond of*, *afraid of*, *weary of*, *tired of*, *sick of*, *ashamed of*, *sure of*, *guilty of*, *innocent of*, *proud of*, *vain of*, *sincere in*, *exact in*, *skilful in*, *mistaken in*, *good at*, *dull at*, *clever at*, *smart at*, *mortified at*, *hurt at*, *angry at*, *vexed at*, &c. In general, abstract nouns may be substituted for the participles, and in many cases this is preferable. I was much morti-

1 The teacher will explain that *interrogation with negation* is used when an affirmative answer is confidently expected. "Are not you well?" "Is not this bread good enough for you?" "Has not Mr. A. told you to make the fire?" Hence this mode of speech expresses surprise, implies a sneer, and suggests doubts. "Do not you know me?" "Are you not a fool to think so?" "May not the horse have run away?"

fied at being defeated,—at my defeat. Participles are rather to be used when they govern an objective. “That boy is proud of *having shot* a fox.” *Busy* admits participles without a preposition. “I am busy writing.”

Some of these adjectives may also govern infinitives; afraid to go; sure to pay. But in these cases, there is often a difference of meaning. “He is *sure of hitting* you.” i. e. *confident*. “He is *sure to hit* you.” i. e. *certain*. So *afraid to* denotes want of courage, and *afraid of*, apprehension. Afraid to jump. Afraid of falling.)

3.—Participles following nouns. (*Generally abstract nouns.*)

There is generally little *hope of finding* lost money.

Some men take *pleasure in seeing* dogs fight and tear each other.

You are in *danger of being killed*. That old chimney may fall on you.

I had lost all *expectation of seeing* you again.

Other uses of Participles.

- II. A PARTICIPLE IS OFTEN EQUIVALENT TO THE ELLIPSIS OF A CONJUNCTION AND A PRONOUN. (*In other words, by means of participles two or three simple sentences are combined into one more closely than could be done by means of conjunctions.*)

The boy went away *whistling*. (*As he went away he whistled.*)

He fled *without looking* behind him. (He fled and never looked behind him.)

I heard *him talking* to himself. (He was talking to himself. I heard him.)

I saw a large dog *chasing* a flock of sheep.

I saw a flock of sheep *chased* by a large dog.

John stood *amazed* to see James ride so fast.

They sat up *conversing* all night. (They sat up *and conversed*.)

The ship went down, *carrying* several men with her to the bottom.

A horse ran through the streets at full speed, *killing* or *maiming* several persons, and *defying* all efforts to stop him.

(Participles placed in the beginning of a sentence, often belong to a nominative in the second clause.¹)

Hoping to see you again soon, *I* bid you farewell.

Being deaf, *I* did not hear the wheels till they were close upon me.

Knowing the fellow was drunk, *I* did not heed what he said.

Finding Jesus already dead, *the soldiers* did not break his legs.

Some robbers attacked Mr A. last night. He knocked one down with his cane, and fired a pistol at another. *Finding* him armed and on his guard, *the robbers* fled.

Tossing the dogs out of his way, *the bull* attacked the horse, ripped up his side and overturned him together with his rider.

(The perfect participle is often used instead of the pluperfect tense with *when* or *as*.)

A gambler having lost (when he had lost) all his money, went and hanged himself.

My horse having lost (as he had lost) a shoe, began to be lame.

¹ This is the principal use of the present participles of those verbs that want the tenses formed thereon.

(The participle also supplies the use of a relative pronoun.¹)

An Indian having killed a deer, invited his friends to a feast.

(When the noun joined to the participle in one clause, is not the nominative of the verb in the other clause, it is called the *case absolute*.)

A hunter fired at a lioness and wounded her, *the ball breaking* her fore leg. She rushed upon him and seized him. A lion can kill an ox with one blow of his fore paw; but *her arm being broken* she could not strike. After biting his arm and side a while, she retired, leaving him more dead than alive.

III. PARTICIPLES ARE OFTEN GOVERNED BY PREPOSITIONS MARKING THE TIME OF AN ACTION.

My brother pointed out to me a raccoon sitting on a limb of an oak tree. *On seeing it I* fired, and *after clinging* to the limb a second or two, *it* came tumbling to the ground.

IV. PARTICIPLES, (OR PARTICIPIAL NOUNS,) ARE MUCH USED TO EXPRESS THE CAUSE, OR MANNER OF ANY ACCIDENT, WITH THE PREPOSITION BY.

That boy was killed *by falling from* an apple tree.

That child made itself sick *by eating* green fruit.

My wagon was broken *by running against* a cart.

1 The teacher can at his discretion, take this opportunity to give some idea of the relative pronouns. 1. As introducing explanatory circumstances: "A man *who* had lost (having lost) his horse, yoked his cows and made them plough." 2. As defining the person spoken of by reference to a known incident: "The boy, *who* was run over yesterday by an omnibus, is dead."

Mr. W. killed himself *by jumping from* a third story window.

That boy tore his coat *by running* among the bushes.

You hurt Mary's feelings *by telling* her she was a dull scholar.

The steam-boat Swallow was wrecked *by running* on a rock.

(With the preposition *for*, expressing the *reason* of any action, &c.)

That boy was whipped *for stealing* an orange.

You owe me a dollar *for mending* your boots.

Boys often suffer *for being* in bad company.

PARTICIPLES, BOTH ACTIVE AND PASSIVE, ARE OFTEN
USED AS ADJECTIVES.

A *growing* lad requires more food than a *grown* man.

Shut the doors and windows tight in a *driving* snow storm.

To reach Europe, we must sail towards the *rising* sun.

If you travel towards the *setting* sun, you will at last reach the Great Pacific Ocean.

Lying lips are an abomination to the Lord.

Singing birds are often kept in cages.

Mr. K. has a very fast *trotting* horse.

The bat is a *flying* quadruped.

Have you ever seen a *flying* squirrel?

This rose is *half-blown*; that is *full-blown*.

This wall is built of *hewn*¹ stone; that fence is built of rough stone.

New *made* hay smells sweet. A *ploughed* field looks brown.

¹ *Hewn, mown, shaven*, and a few other old participles, are now hardly used except as *adjectives*, the regular forms being used as proper participles.

Pies are often made of *dried* fruit.

A *frightened* horse ran away with a wagon and broke it to pieces.

Did you ever see a house with a *thatched* roof? Such houses are common in England.

A *well-trained* horse will stop when his rider falls.

Adam and Eve were driven from Eden because they ate the *forbidden* fruit.

(Participles are compared like adjectives.)

Mr. C. was one of the *most respected* citizens of New-York.

Mr. B. is *more admired* than Mr. X., but not *so much respected*.

This is the *most surprising* accident I ever heard of.

(NOTE.—The termination *ed* is often added to form adjectives from nouns. A blue *eyed* girl. A three *pronged* fork. A bald *headed* eagle. A long *horned* cow. A *moneyed* man. A good *hearted* boy.)

VI. PARTICIPLES SOMETIMES BECOME NOUNS.

John's *writing* is neater than Peter's.

Thomas's father gave him a *whipping*.

Miss C's *dancing* is much admired.

The Indian *way of fighting* is to shoot from behind trees.

I know that man yonder by his *manner of walking*.

The *driving* of Jehu was very furious.

The men of Nineveh repented at the *preaching* of Jonah

Section X.—The Imperative. (See Note 14.)

1.—Used in Commanding or Directing.

(In Anger.)

Let that book alone. *Get* out of my sight.

Take your hands off me. *Leave* the room.

Put down that watch. *Come* here this moment.
Go about your business. *Mind* your own business.
Keep out of my house. *Don't come* here again.
Hold your tongue. *Stop* your tongue.
Come on—(as a challenge.) *Begone!*
(The verbs are sometimes omitted.)
Away! (get away.) *Silence!* *Peace!*

(*Mildly, in course, as to children, servants, soldiers, &c.;
or whenever in business matters, brevity is preferred to
ceremony.*)

Stand up. *Study* your lesson. *Write* a sentence.
Bring me your copy-book. *Carry* round the crayons.
Take your seat. *Give* Mr. C. a chair. *Shut* the door.
Pull off my boots. *Give* me my best coat.
Mind! *Look!* *See!* *Listen!* *Hear* him! *Take* care!
Look out!

Come. *Come* along. *Let us* go. *Let us* make haste.
March! *Wheel!* *Halt!* *Make* ready! *Present!* *Fire!*
Go and water the horse. *Bring* out the carriage.
Change this bill. *Send* the things to my house.
Drive to 100 Broadway. *Let* me see your calicoes.
Don't drive so fast. *Do not* forget what I told you.
Let the bearer have my coat.
Pay the bearer ten dollars on my account.

2.—*Invitation. Offer of assistance. Affectionate charge.*

Sit down and rest yourself. *Take* a chair. *Stay* to tea.
Do not hurry yourself. *Don't* go yet.
Come in. *Come* and see us again. *Take* my arm.
Give me your hand. *Permit* me to assist you.
Keep this for my sake. *Remember* me. *Don't* forget me

3.—*Permission.*

Go and *do* as you please. *Have* your own way.

Take it if you want it. *Take* it in welcome.

4.—*Entreaty. Supplication.*

Forgive me. Let me go. Don't¹ hurt me.

"Give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our trespasses."

"Lord, have mercy on me, a sinner."

5.—*Exhortation. Advice.*

Look before you leap. Pay your debts.

Repent of your sins. Remember the Sabbath day.

Keep your temper. *Get out* of debt and *keep out*.

Give every man his due. Honor your parents.

Don't do that. Don't hurt the poor boy.

Do give the poor child its plaything.

Don't be so foolish. *Let* well enough alone.

Go to bed early and *rise* early if you would be healthy, wealthy and wise.

Plant your corn early, *manure* it well and *kill* the weeds.

Third Person of the Imperative.

Let them say so. I do not care.

"Your dog has run away." "*Let him run*; I shall not run after him."

"Mr. Y. says he will be revenged on you."

"*Let him take* care of himself. I shall be ready for him."

¹ *Do* is often prefixed to the imperative to mark strong *entreaty* or *expostulation*, but when the phrase is negative, *do not* is used in all cases except where the solemnity or elevation of the style would make it improper. "Lead us not into temptation." Touch not, taste not, handle not.

God said *Let there be light*; and there was light.

(The Passive form in the second person is little used, except in poetry and oratory, but is quite common in the third person.)

Go and *be hanged*.

Be contented with your lot. *Be comforted*.

If that man is a murderer, *let him be hanged*.

(Let is often omitted.)

"His blood *be* on us and on our children."

Long *live* the king.

"*Hung be* the heavens with black."

(The Imperative form is used in *Recipes*.)

Take a pound of sugar to a pound of currants and *stew* them well together; (to make preserves.)

The Imperative is often used to suppose an action done in order to state the consequences.

Flatter a child, and you will be sure to please its mother.

Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves.

Set a little boy on horseback, and he will perhaps break his neck.

"*Train* up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it."

Examples of the correspondence in meaning between the Infinitive, Imperative and Participles and the Finite Verb with Conjunctions.

I know Mr. A. *to be* an honest man.

I know *that* Mr. A. *is* an honest man.

I believe this story *to be* partly true.

I believe *that* story *is* partly true.

That man pretended *to be* deaf and dumb.

That man pretended *that he was* deaf and dumb.

I saw him *strike* you. I saw *that he struck* you.

I wish *you to go*. (*That you would go*,¹) (*So desire*.)

I expect *him to come*. (*That he will come*.)

My father told *me to go* to school. (*That I should go*.)

The verbs after which this conversion is allowable are; 1. Know, believe, think, judge, pretend, find, prove, see, feel, and perceive; especially when followed by *to be*, expressed or understood. 2. Wish, desire, expect, tell. (Go to school. He *told me to go*. You shall go. He told me I should go.) After some other verbs, the change in the phrase is more considerable, as:

I happened to be sick when my brother was married.

It happened that I was sick when the letter arrived.

So seem, appear, chance &c.

When the verbs know, think and judge, are used in the passive, they are sometimes used *personally*, and sometimes *impersonally*. In the former case they admit only the infinitive; in the second case only the conjunction and verb; as:

Mr. A. *is well known to be* very rich.

It is well known that Mr. A. *is* very rich.

That man *is generally believed to be* guilty of murder.

It is generally believed that he is guilty of murder.

A similar rule prevails with some adjectives.

You were lucky to find it. It is lucky for you that you found it.

¹ *Wish that* requires a preteritive verb after it. "I wish you were here;" "I wish I had a new coat." Except *may*; "I wish you may get it." So *desire*, and *to be willing*. "I am not willing that you should go."

Lead on and we will follow. (If you lead on we will follow.)

Disturb a bee hive, and the bees will fly about your ears. (If you disturb &c.)

(The teacher will note that when a conjunction is placed before the first clause, *and* must be omitted before the second.)

Being very busy, (as I was very busy,) I could not accept the invitation.

Having heard his story, (when she had heard &c.,) the lady gave the poor man a dollar.

My gun not being loaded, (as my gun was not loaded,) I could not shoot.

Examples of the mode of turning the Imperative to the Narrative form.

John, *bring* me your slate.

Mr. G. *told* you *to bring* him your slate.

Begone! I *bade* him *begone*.

Come and *see* us. Mrs. P. *invited* us *to come* and *see* them.

Lend me your knife. He *asked* me *to lend* him my knife.

Fire! The captain *ordered* his men *to fire*.

Drive on. I *directed* the coachman *to drive on*.

Forgive me. He *begged* me *to forgive* him. (He begged to be forgiven; or, he prayed for forgiveness.)

Lord, *have mercy* on me. Blind Bartimeus *prayed* for *mercy*.

Keep out of debt. Wise men advise us to keep out of debt.

NOTE.—When a question is *narrated*, we place the nominative before the verb or auxiliary. “Where are you going?” He asked me where I was going. “How old are you?” He asked me how old I was. To comply with the direction “Ask Mr. A. if he is well;” the pupil should write, “Mr. A. are you well?” And narrate it thus. “Mr. C. told me to ask Mr. A. if he was well, which I did;” or “and I did so.”)

Orders transmitted through a third person.

Tell John to curry the horse and harness him.

John; Mr. A. wants you to curry the horse, &c.

Ask Peter to lend me his knife.

Peter; Henry wishes to borrow your knife.

Further Examples.

Mr. P. motioned to his son to bring him a book.

When the woman saw her son on the top of the well-sweep, she was much frightened, and *screamed to him to come down.*

Order the saucy boy out. (i. e. order him to go out.)

My sister *signed to me to go and bring* the cows. I would not go. She took hold of my arm and shook me; I screamed, and my mother *halloosed to her to let me alone.* (i. e. She hallooed, “Let him alone.”)

Section XI.—The Potential and Subjunctive Moods.

1. *The conjunctions if, though, and some others, often sup-*

pose things that *are* or *may be* true or may probably happen. This supposition is not properly the *subjunctive mood*, though usually called so.

If John has gone to the city without leave, he will be punished.

Though you have done me a great wrong, I freely forgive you.

If you will repent and turn to Christ, he will pardon your sins.

2. *The auxiliaries* will and would, shall and should, can and could, may and might, are often used to affirm *positively* not actions done, but, disposition, obligation, power, liberty, or possibility to act. This is not properly the *potential mood*, though generally called so in grammars. (See examples in section I.)

It may rain. It may have rained.

You can see the moon though the sun shines.

3. *The true potential* expresses a *conditional* disposition, power or possibility to do what was *not done*, and the true subjunctive *invariably* makes a supposition *contrary to the fact*, (or to what is assumed to be the fact,) or to present expectation. In both these modes none but *Preteritive* verbs are employed, even in present and future time. The origin of this peculiarity is probably shown by the following examples.

If I have two pencils I will give you one.

I have but one.

I *said* that if I *had* two, I *would* give you one.

If I *had* two pencils, I *would* give you one.

You shall go to the city to-morrow if it is pleasant.

It is not pleasant, you cannot go.

You *said* I *should* go.

I said you *should* go if it *were*¹ pleasant.

If my boy has stolen your peaches I will whip him severely.

I am sure he has not stolen them.

I said if he *had done* it I *would* whip him.

If the boy *had stolen* the peaches, I *would* whip him.

Potential Present.

Subjunctive Present.

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|--------|-------|------|---|----------------------|
| I | { | would | go IF | I | { | had (a horse.) |
| You | | could | | he | | were (well.) |
| She | | should | | she | | knew (the way.) |
| They | | might | | they | | could (get a horse.) |

Any preteritive forms except the pluperfect may form the subjunctive present, but the potential is in general restricted to the four auxiliaries *would*, *could*, *should* and *might*.

Examples.

Both Potential and Subjunctive Affirmative.

You *might* shoot that bird if you *had* a gun.

I *would* visit you if I *knew* the way to your house.

We *could* see the sun at midnight if there *were* a hole through the earth.

Potential Affirmative and Subjunctive Negative.

We *should* } see the sun if it *were* not cloudy.
You *would* }

You *might* go to the City to-day if it *did* not rain.

1. The use of *were* and *were* in the second and third person singular, is the only case in which the present of the subjunctive differs from the preterite of the indicative. It is very common with uneducated persons to use *was* in the subjunctive instead of *were*.

Potential Negative and Subjunctive Affirmative.

I *would* not steal though I *were* almost starved.

We *should* } not be happy though { we } had every thing { we } want.
 You *would* } { you } { you }
 He } { he } { he } wants.

That boy *should* not behave so if I *were* his father.

That boy *would* not behave so if he *knew* that people laugh at him.¹

You *could* not reach the moon if you *stood* on the highest mountain in the world.

Both Clauses Negative.

We *should not* live a day if God *did not* preserve us.

You *could not* talk if you *had no* fingers.

Interrogatively.

Should you be sorry if Mr. S. *were* sick? I *should* indeed.

Would you help your brother if he *were* in distress?

Could you talk with your friends if you *had no* fingers?

(The teacher may take this opportunity to explain the use of *interrogation with negation*, as showing a confident expectation of receiving an affirmative answer, or as expressing surprise. Don't you know me? Have you never seen a parrot before? Can't you hear at all?)

Would not you run if you *saw* a mad dog coming?

Compound Subjunctive.

I *would* pay you if I *could get* the money.

You *would* } improve faster if { you } *would*² study more diligently.
 I *should* } { I }

¹ This case, where the Indicative is coupled with the Subjunctive present by the Conjunction *that*, seems an exception to the rule of the concord of preteritive verbs, as laid down in Section I.

² *Would* in the subjunctive clause, always refers to *will* or *inclination*.

The clauses are often transposed.¹

If you could hear that man talk, you would laugh like to split your sides.

If B. could hear and speak, he might be a lawyer or a doctor.

If I had a good horse, I would ride out every morning.

If James knew how to swim, he might go into the river.

If that man could get rum enough, he would be drunk all the time.

If I could hear from my family once a month, I should be contented.

III. PAST TENSE.

Potential Past.

Subjunctive Past.

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|-------------|----------|------|---|----------------------|
| I | { | would have | gone. IF | I | { | had had (a horse.) |
| You | | should have | | you | | had known (the way.) |
| He | | could have | | he | | had been (well.) |
| She | | might have | | she | | could have (got |
| They | | | | they | | a horse.) |

(NOTE.—The past Subjunctive agrees in form with the pluperfect of the Indicative, except the compound forms, which agree with the Potential in all the tenses.)

Examples.

Mr. B. could have shot a wild duck yesterday if he had had a gun.

You might have had a new book if you had asked me for it.

Mary should have had a new book if she had behaved well.

It was foolish to throw stones at that large dog. He

¹ The order which Grammarians call *transposed* will usually appear to the deaf and dumb, the more natural and intelligible order.

might have killed you if you had provoked him to attack you.

Potential Negative.

I would not have left home if I had expected you.

Subjunctive Negative.

I would have left home if I had not expected you.

Both clauses Negative.

I would not have gone there if I had not expected to meet you.

(The first of these three sentences implies, I *did* leave home, *not* expecting you; the second implies, I *did not* leave home, as I *did* expect you; the third implies, I *did* go, as I *did* expect to meet you. These paraphrases, however, by no means give the meaning of the sentences, but only a part of the meaning.)

Further examples of the difference between Affirmative and Negative clauses.

John would have fallen into the well if James had not pulled him back.

Peter would not have fallen if Henry had pulled him back.

(We can also say, "John *must have fallen* if James had not pulled him back." In this connection *must have* may be considered as belonging to the Potential mood.)

I could not have caught the horse if you had not helped me.

I could not have caught him if you had hindered me.

I could not have caught him though you had helped me.

Jack *should* not have hurt you if *I had been* there.
 Jack *would* not have hurt you if *you had not teased him*.

The clauses transposed.

If *I had expected* you, *I should not have gone* from home.
 If *I had not expected* you, *I should have gone* before now.

Interrogatively.

Could you have lifted this slate if *I had not helped* you?

(The past Subjunctive may be coupled with the present or future Potential.)

If Christ *had not died* for us, we *could not be saved*.

If John *had studied* his lesson well, he *would not now make* so many mistakes.

Compound Subjunctive Past.

(This is comparatively not much used.)

I would have gone if *I could have got* a horse.

IV. THE FUTURE TENSE.

(This agrees in form with the present, except that the compound form of the Subjunctive (with *should*) is often used for the simple form.)

Miss F. *would scream* if a mouse *should jump* in her lap.

We *should all fall* into Mr. M's room if the floor *should give way*.

I (we) *should be sorry* if Mr A. *should leave* us.

You (he, she, they, &c.,) *would be sorry* if, &c.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---------|----------------------|---|-----|---------------|---|------|---|---|
| I | should | } be very unhappy if | { | I | } should lose | { | my | } | |
| You | } would | | | you | | | your | | } |
| He | | | | he | | | his | | |

¹ Sometimes the Subjunctive of the verb *to be* is used with the Infinitive instead of *should*. "If the rope *were to break* you *would get* a bad fall."

Potential Negative.

I *could not work* if I *should lose* one of my hands.

We *could not reach* the moon though we *should go up* in a balloon.

Some men *would not believe* though one *should rise* from the dead.

(The future Subjunctive is not much used negatively.)

Interrogatively.

What *would you do* if your horse *should run away* with you?

What *should we do* if the house *should take fire* while we *were* all in bed?

Could you talk with your friends if you *should lose* both your hands?

The clauses transposed.

If the house *should take fire* while all the family *were* asleep, some of us *might lose* our lives.

If you *should jump* into deep water without knowing how to swim, you *would probably be drowned*.

If the cat *saw* (or *should see*) a mouse in a tub of water, do you think she *would jump* in after it?

V. REMARKS.

1. The Subjunctive is most commonly used with IF and THOUGH, but may also follow a few other conjunctions.

2. Though the Potential and Subjunctive, (properly so called,) naturally depend on each other, and are usually coupled together, yet the Potential very often stands alone, the Subjunctive being either understood, or changed to some other mode of expression.

The Subjunctive clause is omitted;

(1) By prefixing the Conjunction *or*¹ to the Potential clause, the sense of the Subjunctive having been previously expressed in the Indicative form. (Remember that the Subjunctive must be negative when the Indicative is affirmative and *vice versa*.)

I did not think it would rain, *or* I *would have* taken an umbrella.

(I would have taken, &c, *if* I had thought, &c.)

Did you hear that my horse ran away with me? Some one kindly caught him by the bridle, *or* I *might have* been killed.

(I *might*, &c., if some one *had not* caught, &c.)

"Will you change me a dollar bill?" "I have no change, *or* I *would* do it with pleasure."

Mr. X. *must* be deranged, *or* he *would* not act so strangely.

My sister { cannot be well, } *or* she *would have* written to me.
 { must be sick, }

(2) Instead of *if* with the Subjunctive, we may use *but* with the Indicative. This transposes the order of clauses required by *or*.

{ I had no gun *or* I *would have* shot the hawk.

{ I *would have* shot the hawk, *but* had no gun.

Here the fact asserted, and the disposition to act, are precisely the same as in the sentence "I would have shot it *if* I had had a gun;" and in most cases, the Subjunctive may be changed to the Indicative in like manner, substituting *but* for *if*, and taking care to make a negative clause affirmative, and *vice versa*. It may be said that the Subjunctive with *if* is rather to be used when the cause or

¹ Here *or* inverts the sense of *if not*. This happens also in the Indicative mood. "Run, *or* the bees will sting you," i. e. *if* you do not run. "I must make haste, *or* I shall be too late," i. e. *if* I do not make haste I shall be too late. So, "Help me *or* I sink," "Lord, save us *or* we perish."

impediment mentioned is supposed already known to those we address, and the Indicative with *but*, or with *or*, when we intend to inform them of it.

Your sister *would have* come to see you, *but* could not get a chance.

I *should have* answered your letter sooner, *but* have been unwell.

(3) Instead of the Subjunctive verb, we often use a noun with the prepositions *with*, *without*, or *for*.

We *could not have* got the wagon out of the ditch *without* your help.

(We *could not have*, &c., if you *had not helped* us.)

You *could not* draw a whale on dry ground *with* twenty oxen.

(If you took twenty oxen you *could not*, &c.)

I *would not* go to the city in this storm *for* a dollar.

(I *would not*, &c., if I *could get* a dollar by going.)

Miss A. *would not* sell that ring for any price.

My father gave me this horse. I *could not* have bought as good a one for a hundred dollars.

(4) The condition expressed by the Subjunctive is often understood; and it may be stated as a general rule that when the Potential stands alone, a contingency or condition is understood.

I *could not* marry that man. (i. e. If I were seriously asked to do so.)

(NOTE.—“I cannot marry that man,” is a reply to a proposition seriously made; but “I *could not* marry him,” implies that there is no present question of it. From the various meanings of some of the auxiliaries, (see Section I.) the distinction is not always clear between the future Indicative and future Potential, but is generally well pre-

served in the past tenses. "I could have done as much as that." i. e. if I had tried.

"Can you lend me a thousand dollars? I will pay you in a year."

"You *might* die, and then I *should* lose my money." (i. e. if I *lent* it.)

Washington would not have accepted a crown. (If one had been offered.)

3.—*The Subjunctive also sometimes stands alone;*

(1) After wish, would, desire, and a few verbs and adjectives of similar meaning; (as has already been remarked.)

I wish I *could* hear. I wish you *would* come to see me oftener.

Would that all men were honest!

My parents are not *willing* that I *should be* a tailor. My father wants me to help him on his farm.

I am *surprised* that you *should* think so.

(Some interjections with the conjunction *that*, follow the same rule.)

Alas that men *should* put an enemy in their mouths to steal away their brains!

Oh that I *had obeyed* my parents!

(2.) The subjunctive with *as if* may follow the indicative.

He struts about *as if* he *were* a king.

He drove down hill *as if* he *were* mad.

The woman looked at her husband *as if* she *would* scratch him.

My dog followed me, wagging his tail, *as if* he *would* say, "dear master, do let me go with you."

(3.) The future subjunctive with *that* is used instead of

the infinitive after the adjectives *proper*, *necessary*, and *right*. (See Section VIII; II. 2.) "It is right that you should suffer for your folly." "That you should suffer for your folly is right."

4. *The past potential is usually defined as implying a conditional disposition, ability, &c. to do what in fact was not done; but to this definition there is an exception.*¹

"Why did you strike that gentleman?"

"I struck him because he abused me, and *would have* done it if he *had been* a king."

"Will you pay me for helping you catch your horse?"

"I *could have caught* him as well without your help."

When I heard that my brother was sick I went to see him. It was raining, but I *would have gone* if it *had rained* much harder than it did.

5. *The conjunction IF preceding the TRUE SUBJUNCTIVE may be omitted; this omission being marked by moving the nominative behind the verb, or the first auxiliary, as in asking questions. (This mode of expression is elegant, but if too often employed, appears affected.)*

Had I known you were coming, I would have staid at home.

6. *The simple subjunctive is sometimes used for the potential, but in general, only in an elevated or poetical style.*

Had he not resembled my father I *had* killed him.

(i. e. would have killed.)

(The most common instance of this idiom is the use of

¹ This exception appears to have been overlooked by grammarians. The past subjunctive, (except perhaps occasionally after *as if*), *invariably* makes a supposition, contrary to the fact, but the past potential may be used, as in the text, to affirm that the *will*, *ability*, *obligation*, or *liberty*, to do would have been the same under different circumstances.

durst, and *durst have* for *would dare*, and *would have dared*. "You durst not say so if Mr. P. were here.")

7. *Before the verb like, SHOULD is generally used instead of would.*

Should you like to be a sailor?

I should like to learn French.

8. *The Infinitive sometimes follows the potential, in order to, or if it were, being understood.*

I would not work so hard to please any one.

I could not keep awake to save my life.¹

Herod would have killed Peter to please the Jews.

9. *The potential may be qualified, like the indicative, by the verbs think, believe, know and guess, and by the adjectives probable, sure and doubtful.*

I think John would have been killed if Peter had not pulled him back just as the locomotive was upon him.

I am sure that Mr. C. would have married Miss. O. if she had lived.

I know that you could have got a dollar for your turkey if you had asked (demanded) it.

I do not believe you could jump over that fence.

10. *The potential with as and than may follow the indicative.*

You did it better *than* I *could* have done it.

Do to others *as* you *would* that others should do to you.

¹ It will be useful to practice the pupil on the various expedients used to avoid the subjunctive. The above sentence signifies, "If it were (in order) to save my life I could not keep awake." The next sentence may be varied thus; "Herod *would have* killed Peter *that* he *might* please the Jews." But when the second clause expresses not a motive, but a fact, we say, "Herod would have killed Peter if an angel had not delivered him." "Herod would have killed Peter, but an angel delivered him." "An angel delivered Peter, or Herod would have killed him."

I *served* (treated) him *as he would* serve me (if he had the opportunity.)

I treated you better *than you would have* treated me.

VI. EXAMPLES OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TRUE POTENTIAL, AND OTHER FORMS OF THE VERB, COMMONLY CLASSED WITH THE POTENTIAL MOOD.

Washington *would not accept* any salary for his services as general.

Washington *would not have accepted* the crown.

(These two sentences imply that the salary was offered, and that the crown was not.)

Robinson Crusoe *would go* to sea in spite of his parents' entreaties.

Washington *would have gone* to sea but for his mother's entreaties.

(R. C. did go to sea, and W. did not go.)

I fired, but *could not hit* the bird; it was too high in the air.

If my brother *had fired*, he *could have hit* it, he had a long rifle.

Section XII.—Recapitulation of the various forms of the Verb.

The Verb TO BE.

SIMPLE INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I am.

You are.

He
She
It, &c. } is.

We
You
They } are.

Preterite Tense.

| <i>Singular.</i> | | <i>Plural.</i> |
|------------------|--|----------------|
| I was. | | We } were. |
| You were. | | You } |
| He (&c.) was. | | They } |

Future Tense.

| | | |
|----------------|--|----------------|
| I shall be. | | We shall be. |
| You } will be. | | You } will be. |
| He (&c.) } | | They } |

Perfect Tense.

| | | |
|----------------|-------|------------------|
| I } have | | We } |
| You } have | | You } have been. |
| He (&c.) has } | been. | They } |

Pluperfect Tense.

| | | |
|-----------------|--|-----------------|
| I } | | We } |
| You } had been. | | You } had been. |
| He (&c.) } | | They } |

Future Perfect Tense.

| | | | |
|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| I shall | | We shall | |
| You } will | have been. | You } will | have been. |
| He } | | They } | |

Auxiliaries that affect the meaning of the verb any other-wise than in point of time, are usually considered as forming that branch of the Potential Mood, styled by some Grammarians the *Potential Doubtful*. The conjugation of these forms is the same in all verbs, only varying the two tenses of the Infinitive, (for such they are in fact, the sign *to* being omitted) which are the last part of every formula. Thus we have: "I *would be* a butterfly." "He *may have been* a soldier." "You *cannot be* a king."

1 It must be borne in mind that after the same conjunctions that give the present a future sense, *will*, when it denotes simple futurity, must be changed to *shall*; and that *will*, after these conjunctions, always retains its proper meaning of will, promising or determination.

Infinitive Mood.

Present. *To be.* *Perfect.* *To have been.*

Participles.

Being. *Been.* *Having been.*

Imperative. *Be.*

(*Let us be, let him be, let them be,* are sometimes the Imperative of the verb *let* with the Infinitive; and sometimes an exhortation, indirect command, caution, &c. In the latter sense they may be considered as the first and third persons of the Imperative.)

POTENTIAL AND SUBJUNCTIVE PROPER.

Present Tense.

| <i>Potential.</i> | | <i>Subjunctive.</i> | |
|-------------------|--|---------------------|---|
| I | $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{should} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{might} \end{array} \right\} \text{be} \dots \dots$ | I | $\left\{ \text{were} \dots \dots \dots \right.$ |
| We | | we | |
| You | | you | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{should} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{might} \end{array} \right\} \text{be} \dots \dots$ |
| He | | he | |
| She | | she | |
| It | | it | |
| They | | they | |

Let the pupil fill up the blanks with proper adjectives, participles or nouns with their dependent words; as: I should be *happy* if I were *loved*. You might be a *lawyer* if you could be *restored to hearing*. The sentences will generally be more easy and natural by allowing them to seek another verb to fill one side or the other, to transpose *ad libitum*. "If you could come and see me I should be glad."

Past Tense.

| <i>Potential.</i> | | <i>Subjunctive.</i> | | |
|-------------------|--|---------------------|----------------|---|
| I | { should would could might } | I | had been | |
| We | | we | | |
| You | | you | | |
| He | | he | should | { would could might } have been. |
| She | | she | would | |
| It | | it | could | |
| They | | they | might | |
| have been. if | | | | |

The following verbs may also be sometimes considered as auxiliaries belonging to the Potential Mood. "You *need* not have gone." "He *durst* not have done so if I had been there." "You *must* have seen him." "You *ought* to have come sooner." *Durst not go*, and *durst not have gone* are used instead of *would not dare to go*, and *would not have dared to go*.

The Future does not differ in form from the Present. It is only to be observed that *should be* is the most common form of the Future Subjunctive, and that *should* is often omitted, leaving the Future form *if I be*. The same omission takes place with *may*, *shall* and *do*, thus giving a variety of uses to the form *if I be*, which grammarians usually style the Present of the Subjunctive. See Professor Barnard's Analytical Grammar, page 207—209.

AUXILIARIES BELONGING TO THE POTENTIAL DOUBTFUL.

(See note 15.)

| <i>Present.</i> | <i>Preterite.</i> | <i>Meaning.</i> | <i>Examples.</i> |
|-----------------|-------------------|------------------|---|
| WILL. | WOULD, | (determination,) | He WILL have his own way. |
| would, | would, | (inclination,) | I <i>would</i> fain know where you got this book. |

| <i>Present.</i> | <i>Preterite.</i> | <i>Meaning.</i> | <i>Examples.</i> |
|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| shall, | should, | (determination for another person,) | I say you <i>shall</i> go. |
| should, | should, | } (obligation,) | You <i>should</i> pray every day. |
| ought (to,) | ought to, | | |
| may, | might, | (permission,) | You <i>may</i> go. |
| may, | might, | (possibility,) | It <i>may</i> rain. |
| can, | could, | (ability,) | I <i>can</i> swim. |
| can not, | could not, | (inability,) | He <i>cannot</i> read. |
| can not, | could not, | (impossibility,) | This <i>cannot be</i> true. |
| must, | must, | (necessity,) | All men <i>must</i> die. |
| must, | must, | (authority,) | You <i>must</i> go. You <i>must not</i> go. |
| must, | must, | (strong belief,) | This <i>must be</i> true. |

Each of these verbs in the present is joined with *have* to form the Perfect, and in the Preterite with the same to form the Pluperfect. For the development of these forms, see Section I.

The verb TO WRITE.

(It is unnecessary to give more than the first person. The pupil can easily supply the others.)

| | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|
| <i>Present Imperfect,</i> | I am writing. |
| <i>Present Habitual,</i> | I write. |
| <i>Past Imperfect,</i> | I was writing. |
| <i>Preterite,</i> | I wrote. |
| <i>Perfect,</i> | I have written. |
| <i>Pluperfect,</i> | I had written. |
| <i>First Future,</i> | I shall write. |
| <i>Future Perfect,</i> | I shall have written. |
| <i>Compound Imperfect Tenses.</i> | { I shall be writing. |
| | { I have been writing. |
| | { I had been writing. |

| | | |
|--------------------------|---------------|--|
| <i>Inceptive Tenses.</i> | { I am | } about to write, |
| | { I was | |
| | { I shall be | |
| | { I have been | |
| | { I had been | |
| | | going to write, on the point of writing. |

POTENTIAL DOUBTFUL.

Present.—I would, should, may, can or must write.

Preterite.—I would, should, might, could, or must write.

Perfect.—I would, should, may, can or must have written.

Pluperfect.—I would, should, might, could or must have written.

The Future agrees in form with the present.

POTENTIAL PROPER AND SUBJUNCTIVE PROPER.

Present Tense.

| | | | | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|----------|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|----------|
| I | { should would could might } | } write. | { If I wrote. If I | { should would could might } | } write. |
| | | | | | |

Past Tense.

| | | | | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------|
| I | { should would could might } | } have written. | { If I had written. If I | { should would could might } | } have written. |
| | | | | | |

The future does not differ from the present, except in using *should* more frequently, and also in sometimes omitting *should*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Write, { Let us write.
Let him or them write.

NOTE.—*Do* is often prefixed to the imperative, especially in the negative form. *Do write. Don't write.*¹

INFINITIVE.

Present.—To write. *Perfect.*—To have written.

PARTICIPLES.

| | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| { Writing. | { Written. |
| { Being writing. | { Having written. |

The Passive Voice is formed by prefixing the several tenses and modes of the verb *to be* to the passive participle, *written*, as this auxiliary has *properly* no imperfect tenses, special contrivances become necessary for those tenses, for which see the notes.

Section XIII.—*Examples of the various uses of some Verbs.*

I. TO HAVE.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>As a sign of past time.</i> | John <i>has broken</i> a slate. |
| 2. <i>As an assertion of property or of possession.</i> | John <i>has</i> a broken slate. John <i>has my</i> slate. |
| 3. <i>Importing necessity.</i> | I <i>have to learn</i> a long lesson. I <i>have</i> a long lesson <i>to learn</i> . |
| 4. <i>Joined to an abstract noun.</i> | We <i>had</i> a pleasant <i>meeting</i> . |
| 5. <i>In phrases importing will or determination.</i> | I <i>will not have</i> that slate broken. I <i>must have</i> you behave better. |
| 6. <i>In the sense of to cause or procure.</i> | I <i>had</i> my house painted. |

¹ *Do* before the imperative gives an air of expostulation and entreaty. Without *do* the sense is authoritative. *Give me that book. Do give me that book.*

NOTE.—*Got* is very commonly, though *inelegantly* joined to *have*, especially in interrogative and negative sentences. "Have you got my knife?" The sense of this sentence is precisely the same as, "Have you my knife?"

As *get* is sometimes used for *have*, so *have* is sometimes used for *get*. "You will *have* your head broken if you do not take care."

II. TO DO.

(1) *In Interrogative and Negative sentences.*

1. *As an auxiliary.* Do you know me? I do. I did not hear you.

(2) *For Emphasis.*

I *do* know you. I *did* hear you.

2. *Representing a verb first used.*

| | |
|---|---|
| } | I told the boy to <i>bring my hat</i> . He <i>did so</i> . "You should <i>try</i> to write well." "I <i>do</i> ." |
|---|---|

3. *As a principal verb.* Do your duty. Do as you please. That boy is doing nothing.

4. *Idiomatic.* This will not do. How do you do?

SCRIPTURAL TERMINATION OF THE VERB.

1. *Thou art*, thou *wast*, thou *will* or *shalt* be, thou *hast* been, thou *hadst* been.

Thou *canst* or *mayest* be. Thou *must* be.

Thou *wouldst*, *couldst*, *shouldst*, *mighst* be.

Thou *lovest*; thou *lovedst*, thou *hast* loved, &c.

Thou *dost* love; thou *didst* love, &c.

1 It would be difficult to give any rules to determine to which of two or three antecedent verbs *do* refers; we must rely on the sense and the context. "I suppose you told the boy to bring my hat?" "I *did*." i. e. "I did tell him" "I told *you* to bring my hat." "I *did*." i. e. "I did bring it."

Thou *knowest*; thou *knewest*, &c.

2. He (she or it) *hath*, *doth*, *loveth*, *knoweth*, &c.

Examples.

Mark II. 22. The scribes said, He hath Beelzebub, and by the prince of the devils casteth he out devils.

Mark I. 11. And there came a voice from heaven, saying, Thou art my beloved Son.

Mark I. 40. And there came a leper to him, beseeching him, and kneeling down to him, and saying unto him, If thou wilt, thou canst make me clean. And Jesus, moved with compassion, put forth his hand and touched him, and saith unto him, I will; be thou clean.

Section XIV.—Irregular Verbs.

| PRESENT. | PRETERITE. | PERFECT PARTICIPLE. |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| Abide, | abode, | abode. |
| Am, | was, | been, |
| Arise, | arose, | arisen. |
| Awake, | awoke, R. | awaked. |
| Bear, <i>to bring forth</i> , bare, | | born. |
| Bear, <i>to carry</i> , | bore, | borne. |
| Beat, | beat, | beaten, <i>beat</i> . |
| Begin, | began, | begun. |
| Bend, | bent, | bent. |
| Bereave, | bereft, R. | bereft, R. |
| Beseech, | besought, | besought. |
| Bid, | bade, <i>bid</i> , | bidden, <i>bid</i> . |
| Bind, | bound, | bound. |
| Bite, | bit, | bitten, <i>bit</i> . |
| Bleed, | bled, | bled. |

| PRESENT. | PRETERITE. | PERFECT PARTICIPLE. |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| Blow, | blew, | blown. |
| Break, | broke, | broken. |
| Breed, | bred, | bred. |
| Bring, | brought, | brought. |
| Build, | built, | built. |
| Burn, | burnt, R. | burnt, R. |
| Burst, | burst, | burst. |
| Buy, | bought, | bought. |
| Cast, | cast, | cast. |
| Catch, | caught, R. | caught, R. |
| Chide, | chid, | chidden, <i>chid</i> . |
| Choose, | chose, | chosen. |
| Cleave, <i>to split</i> , | cleft, <i>clove</i> , | cleft, <i>cloven</i> . |
| Cling, | clung, | clung. |
| Clothe, | clothed, | <i>clad</i> , R. |
| Come, | came, | come. |
| Cost, | cost, | cost. |
| Crow, | <i>crew</i> , R. | crowed. |
| Creep, | crept, | crept. |
| Cut, | cut, | cut. |
| Dare, <i>to venture</i> , | durst, | dared. |
| Deal, | dealt, R. | dealt, R. |
| Dig, | dug, R. | dug, R. |
| Do, | did, | done. |
| Draw | drew, | drawn. |
| Drive, | drove, | driven. |
| Drink, | drank, | drank, <i>drunk</i> . |
| Dwell, | dwelt, R. | dwelt, R. |
| Eat, | ate, <i>eat</i> , | eaten, R. |
| Fall, | fell, | fallen. |
| Feed, | fed, | fed. |
| Feel, | felt, | felt. |

| PRESENT. | PRETERITE. | PERFECT PARTICIPLE. |
|----------|------------------|---------------------------|
| Fight, | fought, | fought. |
| Find, | found, | found. |
| Flee, | fled, | fled. |
| Fling, | flung | flung. |
| Fly, | flew, | flown. |
| Forget, | forgot, | forgotten, <i>forgot.</i> |
| Forsake, | forsook, | forsaken. |
| Freeze, | froze, | frozen. |
| Get, | got, | got, <i>gotten.</i> |
| Gild, | <i>gilt</i> , R. | <i>gilt</i> , R. |
| Gird, | <i>girt</i> , R. | <i>girt</i> , R. |
| Give, | gave, | given. |
| Go, | went, | gone. |
| Grave, | graved, | graven, R. |
| Grind, | ground, | ground. |
| Grow, | grew, | grown. |
| Have, | had, | had. |
| Hang, | hung, R. | hung, R. |
| Hear, | heard, | heard. |
| Hew, | hewed, | hewn, R. |
| Hide, | hid, | hidden, <i>hid.</i> |
| Hit, | hit, | hit. |
| Hold, | held, | held. |
| Hurt, | hurt, | hurt. |
| Keep, | kept, | kept. |
| Kneel, | knelt, R. | knelt. |
| Knit, | knit, R. | knit, R. |
| Know, | knew, | known. |
| Lade, | laded, | laden. |
| Lay, | laid, | laid. |
| Lead, | led, | led. |
| Leave, | left, | left. |

| PRESENT. | PRETERITE. | PERFECT PARTICIPLE. |
|-------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| Lend, | lent, | lent. |
| Let, | let, | let. |
| Lie, <i>to lie down</i> | lay, | lain. |
| Load, | loaded, | laden, R. |
| Lose, | lost, | lost. |
| Make, | made, | made. |
| Mean, | meant, | meant. |
| Meet, | met, | met. |
| Mow, | mowed, | mown, R. |
| Pay, | paid, | paid. |
| Put, | put, | put. |
| Read, | read, | read. |
| Rend, | rent, | rent. |
| Rid, | rid, | rid. |
| Ride, | rode, | rode, <i>ridden</i> . |
| Ring, | rang, <i>rung</i> , | rung. |
| Rise, | rose, | risen. |
| Rive, | rived, | riven, R. |
| Run, | ran, | run. |
| Saw, | sawed, | sawn, R. |
| Say, | said, | said. |
| See, | saw, | seen. |
| Seek, | sought, | sought. |
| Sell, | sold, | sold. |
| Send, | sent, | sent. |
| Set, | set, | set. |
| Shake, | shook, | shaken. |
| Shape, | shaped, | shapen, R. |
| Shave, | shaved. | shaven, R. |
| Shear, | sheared, | shorn, R. |
| Shed, | shed, | shed. |
| Shine, | shone, R. | shone, R. |

| PRESENT. | PRETERITE. | PERFECT PARTICIPLE. |
|----------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| Show, | showed, | shown, R. |
| Shoe, | shod, | shod. |
| Shoot, | shot, | shot. |
| Shrink, | shrunk, <i>shrank</i> , | shrunk. |
| Shred, | shred, | shred. |
| Shut, | shut, | shut. |
| Sing, | sung, <i>sang</i> . | sung. |
| Sink, | sunk, <i>sank</i> . | sunk. |
| Sit, | sat, | sat. |
| Slay, | slew, | slain. |
| Sleep, | slept, | slept. |
| Slide, | slid, | slidden. |
| Sling, | slung, | slung. |
| Slink, | slunk, | slunk. |
| Slit, | slit, R. | slit, <i>slitten</i> . |
| Smite, | smote, | smitten. |
| Sow, | sowed, | sown, R. |
| Speak, | spoke, | spoken. |
| Speed, | sped, | sped, |
| Spend, | spent, | spent, |
| Spill, | <i>spill</i> , R. | <i>spill</i> , R. |
| Spin, | spun, | spun. |
| Spit, | spit, spat, | spit, <i>spitten</i> . |
| Split, | split, | split. |
| Spread, | spread, | spread. |
| Spring, | sprang, <i>sprung</i> , | sprung. |
| Stand, | stood, | stood. |
| Steal, | stole, | stolen. |
| Stick, | stuck, | stuck. |
| Sting, | stung, | stung. |
| Stink, | stunk, | stunk. |
| Stride, | strode, <i>strid</i> , | stridden. |
| Sweep, | swept, | swept. |

| PRESENT. | IMPERFECT | PERFECT PARTICIPLE. |
|----------|---------------------|--|
| Strike, | struck, | struck, <i>stricken</i> . |
| String, | strung, | strung. |
| Strive, | strove, | striven. |
| Strow, | strowed, | { strown, strowed, <i>strowed</i> . |
| Strew, | strewed, | |
| Swear, | swore, | sworn. |
| Sweat, | <i>sweat</i> , R. | <i>sweat</i> , R. |
| Swell, | swelled, | swollen. |
| Swim, | swam, <i>swum</i> , | swum. |
| Swing, | swung, | swung. |
| Take, | took, | taken. |
| Teach, | taught, | taught. |
| Tear, | tore, | torn. |
| Tell, | told, | told. |
| Think, | thought, | thought. |
| Thrive, | <i>throve</i> , R. | thriven. |
| Throw, | threw, | thrown. |
| Thrust, | thrust, | thrust. |
| Tread, | trod, | trodden. |
| Wake, | woke, R. | waked. |
| Wax, | waxed, | waxen, R. |
| Wear, | wore, | worn. |
| Weave, | wove, | woven. |
| Weep, | wept, | wept. |
| Win, | won, | won. |
| Wind, | wound, | wound. |
| Work, | wrought, R. | wrought, R. |
| Wring, | wrung, | wrung. |
| Write, | wrote, | written. |

The letter R, denotes regular formation also. The words in italics are hardly to be preferred.

CHAPTER V.—THE MONTHS.

I. JANUARY.

January has thirty-one days. It is the first month of the year, but the second month of winter. The first day of January is *new-year*, and is very generally *observed* as a *holiday*. It is the custom for gentlemen to call on their friends on that day; and those who have a long list of friends, have to ride about from one house to another all day.

January is generally a cold month. The snow often falls deep, and the keen north-west winds whistle about our ears. Sometimes, however, we have heavy rains in January, and the ground is sometimes bare for weeks together. In some years there is very mild weather in this month. The ice breaks up in the rivers, and the ground becomes very muddy, but the north-west wind generally returns, and we have a short time of very cold weather before spring.

Now the days are much shorter than the nights, and the farther north you go, the shorter will be the days and the longer the nights. We spend the long winter evenings by the fire-side, reading, *chatting*, and cracking nuts, while the women and girls are sewing and knitting. Often we take a sleigh-ride and spend an evening by the fire-side of a friend.

1 In these lessons, frequent occasion is taken to introduce idioms which have been explained in the last Chapter. The teacher will refer to that chapter as they occur.

*Winter Evening.*

What is the matter¹ with that dog? He is running from the fire as if he were mad; he has overturned the little boy *who* sat on his stool before the fire, and laid him sprawling on the floor. The old man takes the pipe from his mouth; the mother stops knitting; the young man lays down his book, the young woman almost starts from her chair, and the cat jumps up, and bristles up her back! You know a dog loves to lie near the fire in cold weather. Cæsar was snugly sleeping on the hearth when a spark from the fire fell on his back, and he awoke when it had kindled his hair, and burned a hole in his skin. Would not you jump if you should awake and find yourself on fire?

What are those pots for? I suppose the largest is to boil potatoes for the hogs, and the other to make mush, (hasty pudding some people call it,) for supper. Don't you like hasty pudding and milk?

¹ What is the matter? i. e. what is the cause or reason of this confusion, outcry, &c. What is the matter with him? what *ails* him? what disturbs or vexes him? &c. There is nothing the matter with him. Nothing ails him.

II. FEBRUARY.

The second month, February, is the shortest month of the year. In common years it has only twenty-eight days, but every fourth year it has twenty-nine days. The fourth year is called leap-year. If you had been born on the twenty-ninth of February, your birth day would come only once in four years.

The weather in February is sometimes mild, but often it is still colder than in January. We have had very severe snow storms in this month. In February, 1717, snow fell ten feet deep! That was long before your grandfather was born, *but* we know it, because our *ancestors* wrote accounts of it, *which* (accounts) have been preserved. Can you tell how many years ago this great snow storm was?

When the snow is very deep, it *puts a stop to* traveling for a few days. At last the farmers *turn out* with horses and oxen, and with sleds and shovels. They shovel away the snow banks, and make their *teams* beat the snow down hard. Each *neighborhood breaks* its own part of the road. Soon the road is broken all the way to the church, to the mill, and to the nearest *market-town*. Then you may see the sleighs flying like birds.



Sleigh-Riding, and Sledding Wood.

The farmers are now busy *getting out* wood and rails. What a great load of wood two horses can draw in good sledding! Yonder you see two men in the woods, *swing- ing* their axes with all their might. There is a load of wood drawn by two horses *at full trot*. The driver sits on the load wrapped up in great coat and mittens. The roofs are covered with snow, and icicles hang from the eaves. Do you know how the icicles are made? When the sun shines on the snow it melts and *trickles* down in drops. These drops freeze in the evening. There are two boys sliding down a little hill on their sleds, near the barn. Before the door of the house a sleigh has just stopped; a gentleman has jumped out of it and taken out his little boy and little girl; he is now helping his wife out. That is *her* father's house. When her sister saw them from the window, she ran to the door to meet them. The boys will put the horse in the stable. You see the smoke coming from the chimney. Soon the father will return from the woods, and they will spend the afternoon very pleasantly together round a great fire.

III. MARCH.

In the latter part of this month the days and nights are equal all over the world.

March is *called* the first month of spring; but, though the days are longer, and the weather milder, spring does not *really* begin till April. The sheep and cattle still stay in the yard and eat hay. You will often see little calves and lambs, and sometimes they perish in severe storms, for March is a very stormy month. The rain often pours down in *torrents* for several days together. All the

snow and ice left on the hills is melted and runs down to swell the streams. Then there is a great freshet, and all the low grounds are under water. Sometimes, however, the weather *keeps cold all through* March, and the *thaw* does not come till April. We have had deep snows in March and even in April. In general, however, March is a wet month, and the ground muddy, *so much so that* the roads are often impassable for carriages.

If the weather is mild, in March, you will see flocks of pigeons, wild geese and wild ducks returning from the South to spend their summer at the North. Now is the time to shoot them. Now also is the time for the farmers to *put up*¹ their fences.



Making Fence and Shooting Wild Ducks.

Those two men in tow frocks are *hard at work* making a new fence. One is putting the last rail in a *length* just made, the other is digging a hole for the next post. You see the old fence has almost fallen down, and some of the rails are broken. In February the men cut and *hauled out*

¹ *Put up* includes both making and mending.

the rails; and in stormy weather they *holed* the posts and *sharpened* the rails in the barn, or under a shed. The fence must be finished before April to keep the cattle out of that large meadow. It must have been a hard winter, for you see they have but one stack of hay left. In two or three weeks the cattle must go out and pick what they can.

There has been a freshet; a great part of the meadow is under water. That young man in the canoe has just fired at a flock of wild ducks. One or two of the ducks are falling through the air; they will fall dead or wounded into the water. The dog sees them falling; he is just jumping from the canoe to fetch them.

IV. APRIL.

In April the days begin to be longer than the nights. There are some very warm, pleasant days; and the grass *shoots up*, and the leaves and blossoms *put forth*. Often, however, winter comes back for a day or two. I have seen snow banks as high as my breast in the middle of April, but the snow all melted in two or three days.

In April the farmers *fall to work* in earnest. The ground must be ploughed as soon as it gets dry enough. Oats must be sown, and early potatoes, peas, and other vegetables planted. Now is the time to sow flax, barley and spring wheat. Trees are now to be *transplanted*. Some farmers *set out* large orchards. Now, too, is the time to make garden.

Have we any fruit? None but *dried* fruit, and a few apples *that* have been carefully kept all winter. The season of ripe fruit does not begin till the latter part of

May, but we have greens and salads; and many fine flowers may be gathered to ornament our parlors.

Now the stove is taken away, and the doors are thrown open. The cattle go out to look for green grass, and the bees fly out to look for flowers. The little birds begin to appear. Where do they come from? They spent the winter far to the south, *where* it is mild weather all the year. The butterflies begin to *burst* from their winter *habitations*. The frogs, snakes and tortoises come out of their holes; and the fishes *that* spent the winter in the sea, or at the bottom of the ponds and lakes, now ascend the rivers and brooks to spawn. Now is the time to catch shad and salmon in large rivers, and to spear suckers in the brooks.



Making Garden. Boys Going a Fishing.

That young man and young woman are *arranging* their flower-beds. James has pulled off his coat to work better. Mary is about to set out a flower *which* she has kept in a pot and carefully nursed all winter. Henry and his cousin are going a fishing. One has his fish pole on his *shoulder*, the other is stooping to pick up worms. That is the back-

door of the house. That piazza must be a pleasant place in summer to work, or sit and read. You see that lilac bush is *in leaf* already, but the apple trees have no leaves yet. There is a man ploughing in the orchard, it is to be ploughed again in May, well manured, and planted with corn. Could we, or any body, live if the farmers did not plough, manure and plant in the spring?

V. MAY.

May is a very pleasant month. The fields are green with grass and the woods are green with leaves. The farmers turn their horses and cattle out to pasture. The cherry and plumb trees have already blossomed, the pear and apple trees begin to blossom, and now is the time to plant corn. As soon as the green spire of corn *peeps* above the ground, the crows will pull it up to get the kernel. Some farmers make scarecrows of old clothes and straw, others stretch lines across the fields.

The lilacs are now in blossom; the *voice* of the whip-poorwill is heard at night; the fire-flies shine in the dark, as if a hundred little boys were flashing single grains of gunpowder. Now the market is well supplied with vegetables, and milk and butter *abound* in the *dairy*. Fresh eggs, too, are plentiful. You may often see a hen running about with a dozen chickens at her heels, and young ducks and goslings *waddle* on the green grass, or swim and dive in the ponds and brooks. Now too the bees begin to swarm. Have you ever heard the old saying about early and late swarms?

“A swarm in May is worth a load of hay.”

“A swarm in June is worth a silver spoon.”

“A swarm in July is not worth a fly.”



Milking. A newly hived Swarm of Bees.

That must be a good cow. Mary has nearly filled her pail with milk. This cow stands still to be milked. Some cows will kick the pail over. They must have their legs tied. You see she has plenty of grass to eat. There is a hive of bees. The swarm settled on a limb of that apple tree, and the farmer had to get his ladder and go up and saw the limb off. He *let* the limb *down* very carefully, and his son took it and *shook* the bees *off* on a clean sheet. Mary and her mother had cleaned a box and rubbed it with sweet herbs and salt. It was now put over the bees, and a board was placed slanting on the box, to keep one side of it up. The bees have climbed up into it. Early to-morrow morning the farmer will carry the box to his bee house and set it on a bench. There is a hole in the top of the box. The farmer will open this hole, and set another box on the top of the first. The bees will fill both with honey, and in the fall, the farmer will take away the honey in the upper box, and leave that in the lower box for the bees.

VI. JUNE.

In June the days are much longer than the nights, and the farther north you go, the longer will be the days and the shorter the nights. The longest days in the whole year, are from the middle to the last of June.

June is the first summer month; it is warmer than May. The sun is high at noon, and your shadow very short. Sometimes, however, we have frost in June, and our early beans are killed. When it is warm, the little boys and girls go barefoot, and the farmers throw aside their winter clothes.

Now the farmers must plough and hoe their corn. The farmer tells his boys to kill the weeds as they would noxious reptiles.

Roses are now in full bloom, and many other beautiful flowers. The strawberries are now ripe, and early cherries and currants. Wheat and rye are now tall and begin to *head*. In the latter part of June the farmers sow buckwheat and begin to mow clover.

Now you see in the market plenty of strawberries, early pease, and early potatoes.

The boys go into the ponds and rivers to learn to swim.

The weather is often very dry, and then the wind blows the dust in our faces, and makes it unpleasant to travel. *Moreover*, the flies and musketoes now begin to bite us, and to *annoy* our cattle and horses.

In the beginning of June the farmers wash and shear their sheep.

*Washing Sheep.*

Here is a piece of water, *probably* a deep place in a brook. On one side the bank is high, and low on the other. On the high bank is a pen, to put the sheep in before washing. The sheep are afraid of water, and *crowd* away to the farthest side of the pen. Henry is in the pen, trying to throw the old ram into the water. The ram struggles and holds back with all his might. I should not wonder if, *in the struggle*, Henry and the ram should tumble down the bank into the water together. You see two men in their shirt sleeves, standing *breast deep* in the water. One of them has washed a sheep, and let it go up the other bank; he is now laying hold of that sheep *which* Henry has just pushed down the bank. The other man holds a sheep in the water before him, and *squeezes* the wool with his hands as he turns the sheep round.

On this side of the brook you see two girls in sun-bonnets, and with baskets on their arms. They were going to pick strawberries, and stopped a few minutes to amuse themselves by seeing the sheep washed.

VII. JULY.

July is the hottest month of the whole year. But, hot as it is,¹ the farmers must make their hay while the sun shines. You may think it very hard to work in the sun while it is so hot, and may think it more pleasant to lie in the cool shade of a tree; but take off your coat and try it, and you will find that, as soon as the sweat *starts out*, you will feel more cool and comfortable than before you began to work.

Now a strong man can earn a dollar a day at mowing or cutting grain. Soon the barn is filled with sweet hay, and with wheat and rye in the sheaf, and part has to be stacked round the yard. Have you ever been raking in a meadow when a thunder storm was rising? How fast the men and boys have to work! and they often call the women and girls to help. Glad is the farmer, if he can get his load of hay in the barn just before it begins to rain; but sometimes the barn is struck by lightning, and set on fire, and the hay and grain *which* he gathered with so much toil and care, are *swept away* in an hour or two.

Now cherries and currants are almost gone, but raspberries are ripe, and whortleberries and blackberries will soon be ripe.

The fourth of July is *independence* day. It is the great *national anniversary* of America. It is generally *celebrated* by *military parades*, by *orations*, and by firing *cannon*. The boys are very fond of firing squibs and crackers, and sometimes *occasion* very *serious accidents* by frightening horses.

¹ *Strong as you are*, you cannot lift a horse, *I, lame as I am*, I can work faster than you do now. Sometimes the sense is not that of *though*, but that of *because*. *Weak as I was*, I could not fight.

*Fourth of July.*

That horse must have been frightened by a squib or cracker. Some people *who* saw him running away, tried to stop him, but he ran to the other side of the road, and upset the gig on the stone fence. You see the shafts of the gig were broken by the *shock*, and the young gentleman and young lady were thrown *headforemost* into the road. I hope they are more frightened than hurt, but I should not wonder if the lady should faint. She will be sorry that she consented to ride out on the Fourth of July. There is a man running to help them; and further off, a boy stands in the road holding up his arms and hallooing. At a distance you see a tavern. There is a company of militia, and a cannon, *which* has just been fired; you see the smoke curling up.

On the fifteenth of July our vacation begins. We go to visit our friends and stay six weeks.

 VIII. AUGUST.

August is the last summer month. It is almost as hot as July. Now we have ripe pears and green corn. Boys and girls wander through the fields and woods picking

whortleberries and blackberries. Sometimes a smart boy or girl can pick a bushel in two or three days, and sell them in the nearest large town for four or five or sometimes even six or eight cents a quart. There are thirty-two quarts in a bushel. How much could you get for a bushel of berries at five cents a quart?

Now the farmers *cradle* their oats and pull their flax. The *upland* meadows are mostly mowed, but many farmers have large *tracts* of *flowed* meadows along a river or lake. Near the sea coast the high tides flow over these meadows, and then they are called salt meadows. The hay from the salt meadows is yellow and has a *saltish* taste. It is not as good as *fresh meadow* hay, but cattle will *live* very well *on* it. While the farmers are at work on their low meadows, there sometimes comes a great freshet. The rain falls copiously for several hours; bridges and mills are swept away, and all the low grounds are laid under water. There was farmer A, *who* had determined to get the hay from his low meadows in a hurry, for fear of a freshet. He hired five or six men, and mowed six acres of heavy grass in one day. The next day, while he was busy with his boys stirring and raking, a dark cloud gathered in the west, it began to thunder. They worked with all their might, and put several loads *in cock*, but presently the rain came down in torrents. They had to get under the hay. For two or three hours the rain poured down, and the water was ankle deep on the meadows. When the rain was over, they got *what* hay they could on the highest part of the meadow, and went home. The river was now rising fast, and continued rising all night. Next morning the farmer went to see his hay, and found it all floating down the *river*.



The Salt Meadows.

Here are two men and a stout lad, *who* have eaten their dinner under the shade of a large tree. Yonder is a load of hay. On the river you see a steamboat and two sloops. Two scythes hang in the tree, and a rake leans against it.

One of the men sits on a bench, leaning his back against the tree. He is holding up a potatoe, and making his dog bark for it. The basket *which* held their dinner, the pitcher *out of which* they drank, and the plate *from which* they ate, lie on the grass near them.

IX. SEPTEMBER.

September is the first month of Autumn. The days and nights now become equal again. The sun is not so high at noon, and your shadow is longer *than* in summer. Look at the sun when it sets. It is *due west*. In June, it set much farther toward the north.

The weather in this month is generally temperate and pleasant. Often there are early frosts *which* kill the beans and garden flowers. Now the woods become red and

yellow. Grapes are ripe, and so are peaches, plums, early apples and pears, hazlenuts and chestnuts. Buckwheat is now in blossom, and the bees are very busy to get all the honey they can, for they know they can find no flowers after there have been hard frosts. Now you have as much fruit as you want. The farmers pick the apples *that* fall first, and feed their hogs with them. Some farmers make cider and rum of them, but this is foolish. What good will cider and rum do them? None at all, but they may make them drunkards. What a wretched creature a drunkard is!

You still see a *good many* flowers. Now the farmers cut up their corn and stack it. They plough their *stubbles* and sow winter wheat and rye.



Children picking Chestnuts.

Here is a large, old chestnut tree. Look at that boy *who* is clinging to the lowest limb of the tree. He has come very near getting a fall. His hat has fallen from his head. He must have got upon that dead limb, *which* you see *dangling* down, and it broke under him. He has *just* saved himself by catching the other limb. His

brothers and sister under the tree are alarmed, and hold up their hands as if they would catch him. They have a pail and a basket. The basket is full of chestnut burs. I suppose they have clean chestnuts in the pail.

Beyond that fence is a fine field of corn. It is now ripe, and two men have begun to cut it up and stack it. Beyond the corn you see a wood, and beyond that a high hill. What is beyond the hill. The sky. What is beyond the sky? God only knows. If you walk to the top of that hill you will see other hills, and the sky beyond them too.

X. OCTOBER.

Now the nights grow cold and *chilly*. Often you find ice in the morning. You are glad to put on your winter clothes and woolen stockings. The birds leave us and fly to the South to spend the winter. The butterflies and other insects still fly about on warm sunny days, but *die off* daily, and in a few weeks you will see no more of them. Hardly any flowers can now be seen. The leaves are all yellow, or red, or brown, and are falling fast; some trees are already naked. Snakes and tortoises retire into their holes, and bees do not fly out as much as they did.

Now the farmers husk their corn and dig their potatoes. They gather the best of their apples for winter.

The boys are still busy picking chestnuts, butternuts, walnuts and winter-grapes. Our mothers and sisters cut and dry apples, pears and peaches.

Dried fruit will keep good a long time, while, if not cut and dried, it will soon rot.

The potatoes must now be put into the cellar, and the cellar must be carefully *secured* against frost. Buckwheat is cut and threshed; and now is the best time to sow wheat.



Gathering Apples.

That fat pig has no business in the orchard. You see the little dog is after him, and will probably tear his ears. Let him learn to keep away from the best apples. But the pig knew no better. The farmer was *to blame* for not making the fence tight.

You see this wagon is nearly full of apples. The horse will have a heavy load to draw. There is one lad emptying his basket into the wagon, another filling a basket under the trees, and a third up the ladder, shaking down the apples.

Yonder in the field is a man *harrowing in*¹ wheat.

¹ *Harrow in*, i. e. cover with a harrow; *plough in*, cover with a plough.

XI. NOVEMBER.

November is a cold,uncomfortable month. The flowers are gone, and the little birds are gone too. The crows, however, are here still, and you may sometimes see them assemble in very large flocks. The butterflies are dead, but it is a *comfort*, that the flies and musketoes *that* bit us so cruelly in summer, are dead too, and that the bed-bugs no longer annoy us.

We put up our stoves, shut our windows and doors, and keep warm as well as we can.

The farmers pull their turnips, and gather in all their crops, and *secure* every thing for winter. Now they must begin to fodder, for the grass is failing fast.

When we have gathered all our crops, we ought to be thankful to *God,who* sent rain and sunshine,without *which* our labor would have been *in vain*.



Thanksgiving.

This is a Thanksgiving dinner. The old farmer has invited all his children, and some of his dearest friends to keep Thanksgiving with him. See how happy they are, old and young assembled round the well loaded table.

One of the sons, *who* lived at a distance, is almost too late for his dinner. He has just come to the door, but they are very glad to see him. Doubtless his wife and children are behind him. His youngest sister opens the door for them, and his old father holds out his hand to welcome him.

What a great pumpkin that is on the side table! Did you ever see as big a one?

XII. DECEMBER.

December is the first month of winter, but the last of the year. See how low the sun is at noon! Your shadow is five or six times as long as it was in June. Look at the rising sun. It now rises in the south-east and sets in the south-west. In summer it rose in the north-east, and set in the north-west. Now the nights are much longer than the days. The longest nights and shortest days in the whole year are in the latter part of December.

Now the cold becomes severe, and the ponds and rivers are frozen over. You can now cross a river without boat or bridge; but be careful to try if the ice is strong enough, before you go on. How *dreadful* it would be to break through the ice; even if you could swim, you might get your head under the ice where you could not breathe.

Now the farmers thresh their *grain*¹ and carry it to mill. If the snow falls deep enough to make good sledding, they begin to *haul* out wood and timber. They fodder their cattle and feed their hogs well, and give them plenty of straw for beds.

1 Wheat, rye, oats, &c., are different kinds of *grain*.

December twenty-fifth is Christmas. It is the anniversary of the birth of Christ. On that day we have a holiday.



A Barn and Farm-Yard. Two Men Threshing.

Here are cattle, sheep and hogs waiting *patiently* for their supper. Those two men are threshing with all their might. Near the barn is a wagon; against the side of the barn you see a pigeon-box. The trees are leafless. I wish there were a few evergreens to be seen. I like to see evergreens in winter.

Yonder is a pond. Some boys are skating, and one has fallen flat on his back. At some distance you see another barn and a large mill.

We have now come to the last lesson in the book, and the last month of the year. Remember you have one year less to live. May you *so* live, *as* to be happy and useful here, and be prepared, when you die, to be happy in Heaven. The way to live is to avoid sin, to trust in the Savior, and obey the precepts of the Bible.

NOTES.

Note 1.—It is very important that the pupil should have clear ideas of the grammatical construction and dependence of words in each sentence. The union of two or more simple sentences, by means of conjunctions, would offer no particular difficulty, if it were not from the frequent inversion of words and clauses, and the still more frequent use of the ellipsis. The pupil will often be puzzled to refer a verb to its appropriate nominative, or an objective to its appropriate verb, each at the distance of many words; moreover, when the objective stands at some distance from the verb, he may mistake it for a nominative.

Grammatical Symbols may be used with advantage, in determining the proper place and office of each word in the sentence. True, daily practice in their use will be necessary, to give the pupils such a degree of readiness in associating each word with its symbol, as to derive any material assistance from that association; but some instructors have found much benefit from this course. The grammatical symbols hitherto used in the New-York Institution, are given in the Analytical Grammar of Professor Barnard, to which the reader is referred.

The *ciphers* of Sicard, being far less complicated than the symbols just mentioned, (inasmuch as the former merely distinguish the chief elements of a sentence, while the latter pursue all the minute variations of number, person, mode, tense, &c.,) can be beneficially employed with much less previous study. They consist in placing the figure 1 over the nominative of the sentence, 2 over the finite verb, 3 over the direct regimen, 4 over the preposition, and 5 over the regimen of the preposition. To these some add an X for the conjunction, a horizontal line for the adjective, (doubled for the adverb,) and a few other modifications. Without doubt it will be very useful to the pupil to practice him frequently in thus distinguishing the elements of discourse. In this manner the connection of the same nominative with several verbs can be illustrated to the eye, by drawing arched lines from the symbol of the nominative to those of each of the verbs, and in like

manner may be exemplified the influence of the same verb upon several successive objectives.

Another exercise which would be useful, consists in writing in full those passages in which an ellipsis occurs. Thus, when the pupil is upon the sentence, "Little boys build houses of stones, mud or snow;" he may paraphrase it thus: "Little boys build houses of stone sometimes; they build them of mud sometimes; they build them of snow sometimes."

Note 2.—Another point requiring attention is the occasional necessity, in the grammatical lessons, to illustrate words and laws of construction by sentences which suppose something already said or known. Some care has indeed been taken to make the illustrative examples complete in themselves; but this was not always easy without swelling the volume to an inconvenient bulk. Where idioms are illustrated by disconnected sentences, the teacher should supply the connection. This is particularly to be observed when the article *the* is used, as if to mark a person or thing just spoken of: "*The* woman looked at her husband as if she would scratch him." The teacher will complete the narration by relating circumstances or incidents, such as may occur to him; as for instance, "I happened to compliment a vain woman on her fine hair. Her husband laughed, and said it was a wig. The woman looked at him as if she would scratch him."

It is also advised to practice the pupil in turning the general assertions of the text to a narrative form, or in making them apply to particular individuals, or incidents. "Some girls work in factories." "Miss N's sister works in a factory." "Some boys go to college. They wish to become ministers, or teachers, &c." "Mr. P's son is studying Latin and Greek. He will go to college and study hard for several years. He wishes to become a teacher," &c. "Boys love to ride horses and colts, and sometimes get bad falls." "Master N. got on a wild colt. The colt ran and threw him. He got a very bad fall; it was a wonder that he was not killed."

Note 3.—*Chap. II, Page 40, Comparison.* The common grammars say that "the comparative is used when two

objects are compared, and the superlative when more than two." This definition can only serve to mislead. Suppose a deaf mute had to write, "The city of New-York is larger than any city in England, except London; finding several objects compared would not he think his rule obliged him to write "New-York is the largest city in England except London?" And further, in spite of grammatical rules, it is more agreeable and natural to say "the best of the two," than "the better of the two."

The true distinction is that when we use the superlative, we include the objects compared under a common designation, and when we use the comparative, we either employ different terms, or make a distinction by means of the words *any other, some other, most other, the rest of, &c.* We say "The rose and the lily are the *most beautiful of flowers*," for the rose and the lily are *flowers*. But we say "The garden rose is *more beautiful than* the wild rose," or "Mr. A. is richer than his brother;" for the *garden* rose is not a *wild* rose, nor is Mr. A. *his own brother*. We can say however "Mr. A. is the richest of *the brothers*," for he is one of *the brothers*. We can equally say "Solomon was the wisest of men," for he was a man; or "Solomon was wiser than any other man," for he was not *another* man.

Note 4.—Lesson 10, Page 44. The phrase "I have a better hat than you have," differs considerably in meaning from "My hat is better than yours." The former phrase not only asserts the superiority of my hat, but *acquaints* the hearer with the fact that I *have* a better hat. The latter takes it for granted that my *having* the hat is known, and simply asserts its superiority.

Between the expressions "This is a better pen than that" and "This pen is better than that," the difference is in point of neatness and emphasis merely.

Note 5.—Lesson 16, Page 49. The expression "half as long again as," means "as long and half as long again as." So "twice as long as," means "as long and as long again." We sometimes say "as fast again," "as long again, &c., meaning "twice as fast," "twice as long," &c.

Note 6.—Chap. IV, Page 133. There are in English, only two inflections of the simple verb to denote time. I *love*, I *loved*; I *run*, I *ran*; I *go*, I *went*; I *see*, I *saw*; I *have*, I *had*; I *am*, I *was*; &c. All the other tenses are formed by means of auxiliaries, each of which has also its two inflections. Thus we have, I *am* writing, I *was* writing; I *do* not dance, I *did* not dance; I *have* walked, I *had* walked; I *will* write, I *would* write; I *shall* write, I *should* write; He *can* not speak, He *could* not speak; He *may* have gone, He *might* have gone; &c.

Thus it appears that all the forms of the finite verb in our language may be reduced to two classes: those in which the verb or its auxiliary is in the first or radical inflection forming the first class; and those in which the verb or its leading auxiliary is in the second or *preteritive* inflection forming the other class. For convenience, we may style the latter class *preteritive* tenses. This class, it will be seen, embraces the simple preterite, and all the forms of the verb beginning with *did*, *was*, *had*, *should*, *would*, *could* and *might*; to which *must* may be added when used in the preterite. These constitute all the past tenses of the Indicative, except the perfect, and all the tenses, past, present or future, of the *true* Subjunctive and *true* Potential; for though grammarians very generally parse, "I *would* go if I *were* well enough," as being in what they call the *imperfect* tense, yet the time is clearly present, and it is a palpable absurdity to style that a *past tense* which is only used to denote present or future time.

The genius of our language requires that when several clauses of a sentence are connected together by the conjunction *that* expressed or understood, (and often too by other conjunctions,) if the first or *principal* verb be in a preteritive tense, the verbs in all the dependent clauses must take preteritive forms. "He *says* that if you *go* he *will* go." "He *said* that if you *went* he *would* go." "I *think* he *may* have done it." "I *thought* he *might* have done it."

This rule is important in teaching the pupil to *narrate* what *was* said, thought, believed, hoped. Without some such guide, a deaf mute would be very apt to write "I *hoped* that my father *will* come." "Mr. B. *told* me that he *shall* not go to the city to-day," &c. We have seen deaf-mutes

writes, "Napoleon's parents *did* not know that he *will* become emperor."

It also appears, as we have endeavored to show in the proper place, that this principle of coupling together preteritive verbs has given rise to, and furnishes the key to an idiom peculiarly perplexing to the deaf and dumb, the use of preteritive verbs in the present and future tenses of the Subjunctive and Potential Moods. "If I have money enough I will buy that book." "I find I have not money enough." "I *said* if I *had* money enough I *would* buy it."

The pupil, however, must not be permitted to suppose that, because a verb in the preterite is followed by another verb in the preterite, therefore a verb in the present must be followed by another verb in the present. Any tense may follow a present tense. "I *think* (now) that he *had* gone (before then.)" "I *remember* that it *rained* last Christmas." "Mr. A. *says* that he *saw* Gov. W. last winter, &c.

Note 7.—Section II, Page 142. The Present Tenses. It seems peculiar to our language to express the *actual* present by a different form of the verb from that used to express the *habitual* or *permanent* present. The distinction between the two, it is true, is not always clearly preserved, (as we often use the latter for the former,) but in the case of most verbs representing sensible actions, it is obvious and important.

Such phrases as the following require attention. "The boy *begs* to be allowed to go a fishing. I *offer* you fifty dollars for your horse." "I *bet* you a dollar I can outrun you." "I *say* you are mistaken." "My boy *denies* having stolen your peaches." "My father *writes* that my sister is married."

Note 8.—Page 151. The Future Perfect, called by Murray and others the *Second Future*, is commonly defined as denoting "that the action will be fully accomplished at or before some future time mentioned." This definition is not satisfactory, for we generally use the first future when a future action or event is spoken of, and employ conjunctions or prepositions to mark time relative to another future time. Thus we say, "I will write to you before I

leave that place." "We shall leave home before they arrive." "The tailor will finish my coat by Saturday," &c. Few people use the future perfect when it can be avoided, and it can, in general, in familiar discourse, be avoided in speaking simply of the future.

But there is a case in which this tense is indispensable, and that is, when the past and future are summed up together. This fact seems to have escaped the notice of our grammarians, at least the author does not recollect to have met, in grammatical treatises, with any notice of it, or even with any illustrations of this tense in the language of familiar life, that were satisfactory. Let the reader compare the following. "I shall have dined at one o'clock." "You will have eaten all the butter we have, when you have finished what is on the plate."

Note 9.—Section IV and V, Pages 152 and 153. The Imperfect and Inceptive tenses. Grammarians commonly enumerate only six tenses in English, namely the three general or simple tenses, I love, I loved, I shall love; and the three perfect tenses, I have loved, I had loved, I shall have loved. There have been writers who would admit only the three former; and others again who have enumerated from nine to twelve, or more. It would be aside from the purposes of this work to enter into the controversy. Whether we admit one tense or twenty, is a matter of no consequence, provided our pupils are taught to use the different forms of the verb correctly. The teacher, when he comes to the technical teaching of grammar, can, at his discretion, parse *I am writing, I was writing, I have been writing*, as composed of the verb *to be* with a present participle: but in the practical teaching of language, he must explain and illustrate each form by itself, and thus virtually treat them as tenses, as much as *I have written, my letter is written*.

The author is not aware that the forms, *have been writing* and *had been writing*, have ever received names, or been recognised as tenses. They are however, more common and important forms of the verb than *I shall be writing*, which has been christened the *future imperfect*.

Note 10.—Page 153. Other important forms of the

verb are those which mark the beginning of an action, or rather the moment before the action. Some writers style these *inceptive* tenses; others treat them as composed of the infinitive preceded by adverbs. Whichever theory is adopted, the phrases require special explanation, for the deaf-mute pupil will certainly never divine the meaning of, "it is about to rain," from a previous knowledge of the ordinary meaning of the component words in other connections.

Note 11.—Section VII, Page 162. Passive Tenses. The object in giving two forms to the perfect and pluperfect passive is, to enable the pupil to convert the active phrase into the passive correctly. If suffered to imagine that the perfect or pluperfect active must always be rendered by the perfect or pluperfect passive, he will frequently fall into stiff and unusual, not to say erroneous forms of language. A glance at the examples in the text will show that the present passive often corresponds to the perfect active, and the preterite passive to the pluperfect active.

Note 12.—Page 164. To supply the want of passive forms corresponding to the imperfect tenses of the active voice, various expedients are employed. The most natural, and formerly the most common, was the use of the present participle in a passive sense. In some cases, this is still held good usage. We say "The bells are *ringing* and the drums are *beating*." In old writings we find such phrases as, "all the time that the giant was *stripping*." (Bunyan.) i. e. that they were stripping him. "Forty and six years was this temple in *building*." (Bible) "When I say *domus edificatur*, I mean that the house is just now a *building*, but not finished." (Ruddiman's Grammar.) From the two last examples it appears that a preposition, (*u* is here a contraction of *in* or *on*,) was often placed before the participle, but this is not peculiar to the passive sense.

The most fashionable expedient at present, seems to be the use of the compound participles *being built*, *being whipped*, *being mended*, &c., as present participles passive.

Thus we often hear, "Those books are now *being bound*." "A new church is *being built* on Tenth Street." "The steamboat Swallow is *being repaired*, and the Rainbow has taken her place for the present." "While the horse was *being curried* he kicked the boy." Though this mode of speaking is awkward and *un-English*, custom may in time reconcile us to it. It is to be remarked however, that this compound participle, in its legitimate use, always denotes a *finished* action, and hence the awkwardness of using it to mark an *unfinished* action. "The carriage *being mended*, we proceeded on our journey." "The deer *being skinned and dressed*, was served up for supper."

We also use the verbs *get, receive, suffer, undergo, &c.*, with a participial or abstract noun. "That boy is getting a whipping." "My house is receiving a new coat of paint." "You will have to take the other road; the bridge on this road is undergoing repairs." "While the child was receiving this cruel punishment, it screamed piteously."

Other circumlocutions are sometimes employed, requiring two or more abstract nouns, and of course, difficult for pupils of only two or three years standing. "The experiment is in course of trial." "The building is in process of erection."

Finally, we have recourse, in many cases, to technical allusions. "A new ship of the line is on the stocks." "The book is now in press." "Your cloth is in the loom." "When I saw Mr. C. he was under the barber's hands."

The teacher will not forget that, with those verbs that want the tenses in *ing*, the preterite sometimes corresponds to the *imperfect* tense of the Latin and other languages, as well as sometimes to the perfect of the Latin, or the *past definite* of the French. Saul *hated* David, but Jonathan *loved* him. Cornelius *feared* God with all his house. Instead of these verbs, nouns or adjectives are often used with the verbs *have, be, &c.* Saul *was* the bitter *enemy* of David. The Philistines *were* very *hostile* to the Jews. Jacob *was afraid* of Esau. Jonathan *had* a strong *affection* for David. Jacob *stood* in much *fear* of Esau.

Note 13.—Sections VIII and IX, Pages 166 and 180. Infinitives and Participles. The English language differs from most other modern languages, in not admitting prepositions before the infinitive, and on the contrary, admitting them before participles in *ing*, (as *walking, loving, having walked, being loved, having been seen, &c.*) Hence, whenever it becomes necessary to express the preposition, we use a participle instead of an infinitive. The prepositions *to* and *for*, (and sometimes *of*,) may be omitted, and verbs and adjectives that require these prepositions after them, are generally followed by a simple infinitive. Thus we say, "My father sent me *for* his hat." "My father sent me *to get* his hat." "I agree *to* your proposal." "I agree *to do* as you say." "He is afraid *of* death." "He is afraid *to die*." But if the leading verb, adjective, participle, or abstract noun requires any other preposition to follow it, then, (except in a few anomalous cases,) a participle must be used. This is generally the case with *of* and always with other prepositions as *from, on, &c.* "A boy boasted *of having* killed twenty black birds at one shot." "I could not refrain *from laughing*." "Saul was bent *on killing* David."

The cases in which certain prepositions must be used, and participles or infinitives employed, cannot be determined by any general rules. Here we must trust to the pupil's memory. What person unacquainted with the capricious idioms of our language could, on any general principle, divine that *insist* requires a participle, while *consent* demands an infinitive? "He insisted *on going*." "He consented *to go*."

Dare and *Need*, governing infinitives, seem to be auxiliaries rather than principal verbs. *Need*, like *must*, is invariable, when thus used. We say "I *need* not go." "He *need* not go." "He *need* not have gone." We do not recollect seeing *needs*, or *needed*, much less *have needed, will need*, used in such a connection. But *need* before a noun is regularly varied. "He *needs* no assistance." "I *shall need* all the money I can get." "You offered to help me when I *did* not *need* it, and refused when I really *needed* assistance." If any of these forms of the verb, *need*, are used before an infinitive, the sign *to*

is expressed, but it is much more common in such connections to use *want*, *require*, *be necessary*, &c.

Dare also requires the *to* of the infinitive to be expressed, when it is used with an auxiliary. "*Has he dared to go?*" "*He will not dare to go.*" There appears to be a difference of usage, whether to write "*He dare not go,*" or "*He dares not go.*"

The teacher should carefully explain the difference between, "*I heard you say so,*" and "*I heard that you said so.*" "*I heard a dog bark,*" and "*I heard that a dog barked.*" It is also to be observed that *see that*, expresses a judgment formed from appearances. Compare, "*I saw him write,*" and "*I saw that he was afraid.*"

Note 14.—Section X, Page 168. Some grammarians assign three persons to the imperative; others restrict it to the second person. "*The command,*" say they, "*is always addressed to the second person, not to the first or third.*" It is indeed true, that what some call the first person singular of the imperative, is merely the verb *let* governing an infinitive, but it is certain that in many cases the phrases "*Let us go,*" "*Let us make haste,*" &c., have the proper characteristics of the imperative. They exhort or entreat just as much as, "*Do go,*" "*Don't go so fast,*" &c.

In the third person, though *let* often retains its proper meaning, it often loses it, and forms a proper imperative of the third person. What other appellation can be given to such a phrase as, "*God said, let there be light.*" *Let*, again is often omitted. "*Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done.*"

Note 15.—Section XI, Page 194. The Potential and Subjunctive moods. The classification adopted in this work, of the forms of the verb called potential and subjunctive, though countenanced by respectable authority, differs from that found in common grammars. The author has only to say that he has made distinctions which it is absolutely necessary to make in order to teach the true meaning of these forms of the verb to the deaf and dumb, and has adopted that classification which seemed best adapted to this end.

He has been indebted to the Analytical Grammar of Professor Barnard, for some valuable hints on the distinction between the "proper and doubtful" Potential and Subjunctive. A large part of this section, however, and indeed much of the chapter on verbs may be considered as *original*, the views expressed agreeing with the views of other writers only so far as the author's independent researches led him to the same conclusions.

The test between the *true* potential, and the tenses classed as the *potential doubtful*, (for want of a better name,) is by substituting an adjective or adverb similar in meaning to the auxiliary verb. The former would still retain the potential form, the latter would resolve into the indicative. Thus "He *would* go," may be translated by "He wilfully *went*," or "He *was* determined to go." So "I *could* not find you," answers to "I *was* not able to find you." But "I *would* go if I *could*," can only be rendered by "I *should* be willing to go if I *were* able."¹

¹ Perhaps the tenses called Potential would be better denominated *conditional*.

THE END.





